

Open Research Online

The Open University's repository of research publications and other research outputs

Acculturation and consumer behaviour: a study of British Indians

Thesis

How to cite:

Vijaygopal, Rohini (2010). Acculturation and consumer behaviour: a study of British Indians. PhD thesis The Open University.

For guidance on citations see [FAQs](#).

© 2010 The Author



<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

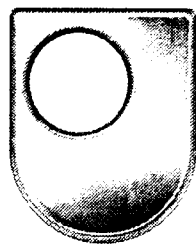
Version: Redacted Version of Record

Link(s) to article on publisher's website:

<http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.21954/ou.ro.0000cc89>

Copyright and Moral Rights for the articles on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. For more information on Open Research Online's data [policy](#) on reuse of materials please consult the policies page.

oro.open.ac.uk



The Open University

**Acculturation and Consumer Behaviour: A Study of
British Indians**

By

Rohini Vijaygopal

Bachelor of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Masters in Marketing Management

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of
The Open University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**Marketing and Strategy Research Unit, The Open University Business School
The Open University, Milton Keynes MK7 6AA**

September 2010

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
<i>LIST OF TABLES</i>	<i>IX</i>
<i>LIST OF FIGURES</i>	<i>XII</i>
<i>LIST OF CHARTS</i>	<i>XIV</i>
<i>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</i>	<i>XV</i>
<i>ABSTRACT</i>	<i>XVI</i>
 <i>CHAPTER 1: Introduction</i>	
1.1 Research rationale	1
1.2 The concept of acculturation	6
1.3 Acculturation and consumer behaviour	8
1.4 The relevance of demographics in acculturation	10
1.5 Scope of the research	10
1.6 Research objectives and implementation	14
1.7 Contributions of the research	19
1.8 Structure of the thesis	21
1.9 Summary	23
 <i>CHAPTER 2: Acculturation and Consumer Behaviour</i>	
2.1 Introduction	24
2.2 Acculturation	25
2.2.1 Models of acculturation	26
2.2.2 Studies on acculturation	31

2.2.3 Frameworks of acculturation	34
2.2.4 Consumer acculturation	42
2.3 Consumer behaviour in the context of acculturation	56
2.3.1 External influences: Culture and reference groups	59
2.3.2 Brand preference	63
2.3.2.1 Brands, brand equity and brand image	63
2.3.2.2 Self-image and brand preference	65
2.3.2.3 Consumer behaviour and brand preference	65
2.4 Demographic Factors	66
2.4.1 Influence of demographic factors on consumer behaviour	67
2.4.2 Relationship of demographic factors with acculturation	68
2.5 Summary	79

CHAPTER 3: Research Framework and Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction	80
3.2 History of acculturation studies and laying the research foundations	81
3.3 Biculturalism and situational ethnicity	85
3.4 The role of ethnicity in the field of marketing in the UK	88
3.4.1 British Indians	89
3.4.2 Defining 'British Indians'	91
3.4.3 British Indians and the concept of individualism-collectivism	91
3.5 Proposed model for the research	94
3.5.1 Acculturation categories	95
3.5.2 Adapting Berry's framework for use in this research	97
3.5.2.1 Attitudinal dimension of acculturation	98
3.5.2.2 Behavioural dimension of acculturation	99

3.5.2.3	Berry's categories in terms of dimensions of acculturation	99
3.5.2.4	The 'marginalisation' category of Berry's (1980) framework	100
3.5.3	Scale for measuring acculturation categories	104
3.5.4	Acculturation categories and brand preference	109
3.5.5	Demographic factors and acculturation	113
3.5.6	Full model of the research framework with hypotheses	117
3.6	Summary	121

CHAPTER 4: Research Methodology

4.1	Introduction	123
4.2	Philosophy of research design	125
4.2.1	The two paradigms in social science	127
4.2.2	Positivism	128
4.2.3	Combining qualitative and quantitative methods	130
4.3	Research Design	131
4.4	Preliminary questionnaire development	134
4.4.1	Section 1: Measuring the acculturation category of respondents	134
4.4.2	Section 2: Respondents' brand preference	137
4.4.3	Section 3: Demographics of the respondents	139
4.5	Focus groups and dyads	139
4.5.1	Designing the focus group and dyad compositions	141
4.5.2	Recruitment for the focus groups	142
4.5.3	Focus group discussion guide	142
4.5.4	Moderation of the focus groups	144
4.6	Questionnaire development based on focus group analysis	145
4.6.1	Developing Section 1 of the questionnaire–CLSI	146

4.6.2 Developing Section 2 of the questionnaire–Brand preference	147
4.6.3 Developing Section 3 of the questionnaire–Demographics	152
4.6.4 Other discussions in the focus groups	152
4.7 Questionnaire pretesting	155
4.8 Survey	156
4.8.1 Survey method: Paper versus online format	156
4.8.2 Identifying British Indians for the research	157
4.8.3 Sampling procedure	159
4.8.4 Data collection	162
4.8.4.1 Pilot surveys	163
4.8.4.2 Minimum required sample size	165
4.8.4.3 Main survey	168
4.9 Ethics approval	169
4.10 Reliability and validity	170
4.10.1 Reliability	171
4.10.2 Validity	172
4.11 Research bias	174
4.11.1 Sample design errors	175
4.11.2 Measurement design errors	176
4.11.3 Hospitality error	178
4.12 Analytical methodology	179
4.12.1 Hypotheses	180
4.12.2 Parametric or non-parametric tests	182
4.12.3 Statistical tests used in this research	183
4.12.3.1 Cluster analysis	183

4.12.3.2 One-way ANOVA	186
4.12.3.3 Correlation and chi-square tests	188
4.12.3.4 Two-way ANOVA	189
4.12.3.5 Significance level	190
4.12.3.6 Decision rule for hypothesis testing	191
4.12.3.7 SPSS	191
4.13 Summary	192

CHAPTER 5: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction	194
5.2 Preliminary examination of the data	196
5.2.1 Preparing the data for the main analysis	197
5.2.1.1 Cleaning the data	197
5.2.1.2 Missing data	198
5.2.1.3 Outliers	201
5.2.1.4 Normality	202
5.2.2 Measuring the acculturation categories	202
5.3 Description of the sample	203
5.4 Cluster Analysis	208
5.5 Statistical tests to compare groups	216
5.5.1 One-Way ANOVA	217
5.5.2 Kruskal-Wallis test	224
5.6 CHAID Analysis	227
5.7 Acculturation categories and brand preference	234
5.7.1 Acculturation categories and brand preference- detailed analyses	234

5.7.2 Analysis of decision-maker questions	242
5.8 Tests for the relationship between demographics and acculturation categories	244
5.9 Tests for demographics as moderators of the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference	254
5.10 Profiles of the three acculturation categories	257
5.11 Summary	260

CHAPTER 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction	264
6.2 Categories of acculturation in the British Indian population	265
6.3 Acculturation categories and brand preference	270
6.4 Acculturation and brand preference—by various products and services	281
6.5 Relationship between demographic factors and acculturation	285
6.6 Profiles of acculturation categories	294
6.6.1 Separated British Indians	294
6.6.2 Integrated British Indians	295
6.6.3 Assimilated British Indians	296
6.7 Summary	296

CHAPTER 7: Conclusions

7.1 Introduction	300
7.2 Summary of research findings	301
7.3 Research contributions	304
7.3.1 Academic contributions	305

7.3.2 Contributions to practice	310
7.4 Research limitations	315
7.5 Future research	319
7.6 Summary	323
 <i>REFERENCES</i>	 <i>324</i>
 <i>APPENDIX I</i>	 <i>369</i>
<i>APPENDIX II</i>	<i>383</i>
<i>APPENDIX III</i>	<i>398</i>
<i>APPENDIX IV</i>	<i>404</i>

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
2.1 Studies on acculturation	31
2.2 Berry's acculturation categories	35
2.3 Studies of consumer acculturation	46
3.1 Individualism and collectivism: A comparison	92
3.2 Berry's categories in terms of dimensions of acculturation	100
3.3 Berry's acculturation categories and Mendoza's acculturation patterns	107
3.4 Studies on demographic variables and acculturation	114
3.5 Summary of hypotheses to be tested later in this research	120
4.1 Overview of research methodology	124
4.2 Ontologies and epistemologies in social science	126
4.3 Elements of methodology for social science epistemologies	127
4.4 The CLSI questions	136
4.5 The response options in the CLSI questionnaire	136
4.6 Summary of focus groups and dyads composition	141
4.7 Focus group discussion guide	143
4.8 Summary of brands presented and participants' responses	147
4.9 Final list of brands	150
4.10 Brand classification based on attitude towards the brands	152
4.11 Structure of the questionnaire	153
4.12 Overview of Phase II of research: Large-scale survey	154
4.13 The first pilot survey and the responses	163
4.14 The second pilot survey and the responses	164
4.15 Responses to the main survey and total responses	168

4.16 Summary of response rates across the pilot and main surveys	168
4.17 Respondents' comment analysis	179
4.18 Hypothesis and other parts of a research study	180
4.19 Null hypotheses	181
4.20 Parametric and non-parametric tests	183
4.21 Type I and Type II errors	190
5.1 Distribution of respondents across acculturation categories	203
5.2 Demographic information	204
5.3 'Are you the person who typically is the decision maker for ... ?'	207
5.4 Hierarchical cluster solution	209
5.5 Cluster size from K-Means clustering method	210
5.6 Overall mean values for the clusters	212
5.7 Results of the One-Way ANOVA test	214
5.8 Descriptives for the One-Way ANOVA results	217
5.9 Effect size and percentage overlap between acculturation categories	218
5.10 One-Way ANOVA test results	220
5.11 Post Hoc Tukey HSD test results for multiple comparisons	222
5.12 Percentage brand preference across acculturation categories	222
5.13 Kruskal-Wallis test	224
5.14 Mann-Whitney U test: Separation and Assimilation categories	225
5.15 Summary of the results from the Mann-Whitney U test	226
5.16 Classification of brands based on attitudes towards brands	235
5.17 Classification of brands based on types of products and services	235
5.18 Brand preference and acculturation categories-in depth analysis	237

5.19 Decision maker versus non-decision maker:	
Results of the Independent Samples T-test	243
5.20 Decision maker versus non-decision maker:	
Results of the Mann-Whitney U test	243
5.21 Correlation Analysis–Spearman’s Rho	244
5.22 Relationship between demographics and acculturation categories	247
5.23 Hypothesis testing for relationship between demographics and acculturation categories for British Indians	253
5.24 Results for the Two-Way ANOVA test	254
5.25 A summary of the hypothesis testing results	263
6.1 Brand options used in the research	274

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
1.1 Nested approach model	12
2.1 Berry's framework—four varieties of acculturation	34
2.2 Four varieties of acculturation based on 'cultural maintenance' and 'contact and participation'	37
2.3 A framework for acculturation research	39
2.4 A model of consumer behaviour	58
3.1 A simplified view of the proposed model	95
3.2 Berry's acculturation categories used in this research	104
3.3 Acculturation categories and brand preference	112
3.4 The association between demographics and acculturation categories	115
3.5 Full model for the research framework	119
4.1 Geographical spread of respondent addresses	161
4.2 Selecting multivariate techniques-interdependence methods	184
4.3 Statistical tests to compare groups	186
5.1 The chapter framework	195
5.2 Initial profiles of three clusters	211
5.3 Final profiles of three clusters showing mean values	213
5.4 Error bar chart	219
5.5 Results from the CHAID Analysis	229
5.6a Ethnic brand preferences for the three acculturation categories: Brands classified based on involvement and value	239
5.6b Host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories: Brands classified based on involvement and value	239

5.7a Ethnic brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:	
Brands classified based on types of products and services	240
5.7b Host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:	
Brands classified based on types of products and services	241
5.8 Role of demographics in the study of acculturation and brand preference	257
7.1 A summary of major research findings	304

LIST OF CHARTS

	Page
5.1 Ethnic and host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:	
Brands classified based on involvement and value	240
5.2 Ethnic and host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:	
Brands classified based on types of products and services	241

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to thank my first supervisor, Prof. Sally Dibb, for her invaluable supervision and complete commitment towards helping me find my path in the world of research. Her astute observations and comments, and her enduring optimism and belief in my work, have been instrumental in inspiring me in my doctoral study. I would also like to thank my second supervisor, Ms. Maureen Meadows, for her much appreciated and beneficial input, especially in the area of methodology.

I would like to thank The Open University for acknowledging the academic merit of my research project and offering me a studentship. I would also like to extend my thanks to all at The Open University who have either directly or indirectly helped me during my research work.

My heartfelt thanks go out to my nine-year-old son, Ravi, for putting up with my long hours of absence from his wonderful world and for his constant remark, “All the best for your PhD”. I am grateful to my parents for their moral support and their trust in my abilities. Last but certainly not least, my very special thanks to my husband, Vijay, for being a pillar of strength throughout my research journey. Without his unwavering encouragement and support at all times, this thesis would not have been possible.

ABSTRACT

Acculturation and Consumer Behaviour: A Study of British Indians

By Rohini Vijaygopal, The Open University, UK, September 2010

The phenomenon of acculturation and its impact on consumer behaviour in the UK merits greater scrutiny. With a changing national demographic landscape as the backdrop, this research seeks to investigate whether established theories of acculturation are applicable to British Indians and what impact this acculturation has on their consumer behaviour. The first aim of the research is to examine whether British Indians can be classified according to the acculturation framework devised by Berry (1980). The second involves questioning whether membership of these acculturation categories has a bearing on British Indians' consumer behaviour, as indicated by their brand preferences for a range of host and ethnic products and services. The third aim of the research is to examine the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation categories.

Using a literature review as the basis, the research uses a preliminary qualitative phase to develop and refine a final questionnaire which is then applied in a quantitative large-scale survey. The data collected from the survey are analysed using a range of statistical techniques including cluster analysis, CHAID, correlation analyses and ANOVA.

The results show that Berry's (1980) acculturation categories apply to British Indians, who follow similar patterns of acculturation to those observed elsewhere in the world amongst minority immigrant populations. These acculturation categories are shown to be the primary differentiators of brand preference amongst British Indians. The acculturation categories also have distinctive demographic profiles, adding to what is known about individuals within them.

The research contributes towards the study of consumer acculturation in the UK and has significant implications for academicians and practitioners.

Key Words: acculturation, consumer behaviour, British Indians, brand preference, demographics, ethnic, host, CHAID.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Research rationale

Britain has seen changing population demographics over the last 60 years with the arrival of individuals from countries which formerly comprised the British Empire. The first big influx happened in the 1950s to help fill the labour shortage after the Second World War. The 1960s and 1970s saw the arrival of immigrants from the Indian subcontinent and former British colonies in Africa, fleeing from war and political turmoil (Burton, 2002). In more recent times immigration has been driven by economic factors, with professionals in the fields of medicine and information technology, amongst others, coming to the UK to work (Rudmin, 2003).

Immigration of this kind is known to lead to cultural interpenetration (Andreasen, 1990). According to Hair and Anderson (1972, p. 424):

The habits, tastes, values and behavioural patterns of immigrants are not constant, but are changing continually. Cultural change may evolve from within a culture or between cultures. When it occurs between cultures, it is usually referred to as acculturation.

Emslie et al. (2007) explain acculturation as the process of learning and adopting cultural traits that are different from the ones with which a person is originally brought up. Such cultural traits have been identified as important influencers of consumer behaviour (Engel et al., 1973; Hair and Anderson, 1972). Models of consumer behaviour such as the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model (1968) and the Hawkins-Best-Coney model (2004) capture the effect that culture and other

variables have on the consumer decision making process. However, none of these models take into account the role of 'change in culture' in driving consumer behaviour, such as seen when individuals become acculturated. As advocated by Segal and Sosa (1983), the key to identifying and understanding ethnic subcultures lies in the extent of their acculturation. Furthermore, not all members of a particular subculture will acculturate to the same extent. In order to fully understand acculturation amongst subcultures it is essential to appreciate the possible variations.

There is increasing knowledge of consumer acculturation amongst academicians and practitioners as a result of research being carried out in North America and other parts of the world (Lindridge and Dibb, 2003). Acculturation as a phenomenon has been deemed important because of its implications for academicians and policymakers and also for its effect on consumer behaviour, which has consequences for practitioners. Although the acculturation of immigrants taking place over half a century has created subcultures within British society with distinctive habits and consumption behaviours, very few UK studies have been carried out to understand the consumer acculturation phenomenon.

Burton (2002) reflects on possible factors contributing to the lack of attention given to the ethnic market in the UK. Firstly, she argues that some sections of the population hold a negative stereotypical view of ethnic minorities. However, such impressions indicate deficiency in actual consumer focus and they do not mirror the existing diversity of the growing ethnic market (Cashmore, 1991; Robinson 1988; Srinivasan, 1992). Secondly, senior marketing positions show an absence of ethnic minority managers. There is a shortage of widely available statistics in this area to

help clarify the issue. However, when ethnic minorities do hold positions of responsibility; they are known to increase the awareness of the potential of the ethnic market (Burton, 1996). Thirdly, there is insufficient clarity amongst organisations in Britain on how to approach the targeting of ethnic minority consumers (Gooding, 1998). Fourthly, there is an assumption that the ethnic population is a small portion of the whole and not worthy of resource investment. Although at eight percent of the UK population, the ethnic population is a small proportion of the total, its commercial attractiveness should not be ignored. With a decadal population growth of 53% and annual spending power between £12 and £15 billion (MRS, 2008), the potential of this population is obvious. Also, ethnic minorities are usually geographically concentrated making them relatively inexpensive to reach with marketing efforts. Lastly, both Seligman (2001) and Burton (2002) note that despite large-scale general purpose social surveys of ethnic groups, there is a serious lack of ethnic data and ethnic-specific market research in the UK.

With a combination of higher rates of fertility, younger population and ongoing migration which is leading to further growth in the ethnic market, wider empirical research to examine acculturation is clearly a priority. Moreover, Nwankwo and Lindridge (1998) note that even just between 1981 and 1990 the increase in ethnic minorities was 23% compared to a one percent rise in the white population. Future trends indicate that the ethnic population in Britain will continue to increase. Hence it is in the interests of academicians and marketing practitioners to scrutinise the market more closely, since this expansion could result in significant changes in demand for some product and service categories (Burton, 2002).

In the UK, the need for the facilitation and management of subcultures has been acknowledged in recent times (Burton, 2002; Emslie et al., 2007; Nwankwo and Lindridge, 1998). Considering that the potential benefits of understanding these subcultures are being discussed, it is a surprise that relatively few consumer acculturation studies have taken place. Most of these studies have primarily focused on the process of consumer acculturation, including the roles, socialisation process and identity formation, rather than specifically on outcomes such as consumption patterns. While a small number of studies have looked at consumption in the context of cultural values and perceptions (Lindridge, 2001; Pankhania et al., 2007), the subject of acculturation outcomes and their impact on consumption merits in depth research. Sekhon and Szmigin (2009) suggest that future research should focus on how marketers and market researchers can target ethnic audiences with their products and services, and that questions remain about how best to categorise UK ethnic consumers.

The need to understand the impact on acculturation of factors such as length of residency, generational status, and immigrants' group affiliations has also been identified as a priority. Omar et al. (2004) suggest that research extending beyond food brand preferences and using a mix of methods is warranted. They further propose that such research should use an acculturation scale that reflects immigrants' habits and behaviour in relation to eating, reading, writing and English language ability, as well as education and income profiles.

Likewise, around the world, researchers have emphasised the need for consumer acculturation studies to examine a variety of subcultures in different countries, thus

extending the field of work beyond the USA. Ogden et al. (2004) intimate that the need to understand statistical differences in consumption outcomes of micro-cultures (i.e. acculturation segments); for large ethnic groups is one of the most significant gaps in consumer acculturation studies. Both Laroche et al. (1997) and Quester and Chong (2001) indicate that the impact of acculturation on consumption can be better explained when research is directed towards determining whether preference patterns of immigrants are congruent with traditional consumption, whether they are completely foreign to such patterns, or whether they are a hybrid of the two extremes. Penaloza (1989) also sees enquiries into the consumption goals of acculturating consumers as an urgent priority. Berry et al. (1987), who have investigated ethnic subcultures in a variety of contexts and non-UK countries, emphasise the need for comparative acculturation studies across acculturating groups in other societies (Berry, 2001).

Given this growing interest in consumer acculturation and its relationship with consumption goals, this research is timely. The study provides an opportunity to answer research questions relating to this issue and to consider the implications for academicians as well as practitioners.

Immigrants of South Asian origin represent over half of the total UK ethnic minority population. Of this total, people of Indian origin are the largest subgroup. British Indians' upward social mobility has been reflected in their emergence as one of Britain's wealthiest ethnic groups (Lindridge, 2001) and this is likely to have an impact on their consumption behaviour. In this research, the consumer acculturation of British Indians will be studied.

One area of focus for this research is on examining whether British Indians follow patterns of acculturation observed elsewhere in the world. The research draws upon the well established framework of acculturation proposed by Berry (1980). This is a bidimensional model of acculturation which presents a four-fold taxonomy for understanding acculturation. This research is also concerned with exploring the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour. The Hawkins-Best-Coney (2004) model is used as a basis for interpreting the influence of culture on consumer behaviour. The research also involves the understanding of the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation. Factors such as age, gender, income and education, amongst others, will be examined. The extent to which these demographic factors moderate the relationship between acculturation and consumer behaviour will also be studied.

1.2 The concept of acculturation

Over the course of the twentieth century, the phenomenon of acculturation has become better understood, largely through studies in North America. The acculturation patterns of ethnic minority populations such as Hispanics and native Americans have been the subject of particular discussion in the USA and Canada (Berry, 1980; Berry et al., 1987; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 1998, 2002; Padilla, 1980; Szapocznik et al., 1978; amongst others). Some researchers believe that acculturation is a unidimensional process, and that the immigrant minority population can be positioned on a spectrum of unacculturated to acculturated, depending on the extent to which they have adopted the customs and practices of the host society (Gans, 1979; Gordon, 1964; Hair and Anderson, 1972).

Others take a bidimensional view of acculturation (Berry, 1980; Mendoza and Martinez, 1981; Ryder et al., 2000). Proponents of this approach believe that when the levels of the acculturating immigrants' ethnic identification are considered along with the extent of their participation in the host culture, they give rise to different acculturation outcomes. These acculturative adaptations can result in individuals becoming stabilised for a period of time in particular states of acculturation. Thus immigrants may adopt a position at either end of the acculturation spectrum or one which is integrated and positioned between the two.

Berry is a leading advocate of this model of acculturation. Through his seminal work in 1980, he proposed a four-fold taxonomy of acculturation. Based on immigrants' levels of cultural maintenance and the extent to which they participate in the host culture, Berry (1980, 1997) proposed that individuals fall into one of four acculturation categories, namely, 'assimilation', 'integration', 'separation' or 'marginalisation'.

This method of assessing acculturation, which is based on outcomes of acculturation, differs from the socialisation perspective on acculturation which considers the processes by which consumption skills are learnt (Ogden et al., 2004; Ward, 1974). Although these two perspectives differ in the manner in which they study acculturation, they are also entwined together under the common theme of 'culture' (Costa, 1995).

1.3 Acculturation and consumer behaviour

Acculturation that is applied in the consumption context is referred to as consumer acculturation (Penaloza, 1994). The consumer decision process has both external and internal influences (Hawkins-Best-Coney model, 2004). Culture, or change in culture (i.e. acculturation) is one of the external factors which has a bearing on the self-concept and lifestyle of an individual, which in turn drives consumer behaviour. A reference group, which is a point of comparison for an individual, is another external influence on consumer behaviour. In studies of consumer acculturation which take an acculturation perspective, acculturation categories are regarded as acting as reference groups.

Although consumption values arising from an individual's culture are difficult to directly observe and measure (Penaloza, 1989), material goods can be regarded as a vehicle for carrying cultural meaning. Thus it is possible to record consumption outcomes based on culture (McCracken, 1986). In this study the brands which individuals prefer are used as a means of capturing such consumption outcomes. Brands have a symbolic importance to consumers (Levy, 1959) that extend beyond the rational and tangible benefits offered by products (Farquhar, 1989). Consumers also have a brand image, which is a set of beliefs about a particular brand. When a brand image matches the self-image of the individual, it is expressed as a preference for that brand (Zinkham and Hong, 1991). Consumer behaviour can thus find expression through brand preference.

Another concept which is relevant to the study of acculturation is ethnocentrism, a construct which is used to differentiate 'in-group' favouritism and 'out-group' dislike (Sumner, 1906). 'In-group' and 'out-group' are similar to the concept of reference groups in the consumer behaviour literature. Consumers who are more open to the alternate culture (e.g. out-group) will show a greater degree of acculturation and less consumer ethnocentrism (Sharma et al., 1995), thus showing preference for brands that are regarded as being from the host society. Therefore, consumer ethnocentrism impacts upon their consumption behaviour.

Numerous acculturative studies in the USA and other parts of the world have considered either levels of consumer acculturation, which follow a unidimensional model of the concept (Kara and Kara, 1996; Ownbey and Horridge, 1997; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005) or outcomes of acculturation, which follow a bidimensional model (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Sodowsky and Carey, 1988). The use of acculturation categories as outcomes of acculturation means that it is possible to differentiate between high and low acculturating individuals, and also to capture the pattern of consumer acculturation between the two extremes.

Some studies of consumer acculturation are based on the socialisation perspective, focusing on the process of consumer acculturation itself (Lindridge et al., 2004; Sekhon, 2007), others look at identity formation through acculturation (Askegaard et al., 2005; Ustuner and Holt, 2007), while a further group studies situational ethnicity (O'Guinn and Faber, 1985; Stayman and Deshpande, 1989). Although there have been numerous studies of consumer acculturation based on both the acculturation and socialisation perspectives around the world, there were hardly any detailed

studies at the time of this research based on acculturation perspectives in the UK. This research seeks to contribute to knowledge in the field by filling this gap in the consumer acculturation literature.

1.4 The relevance of demographics in acculturation

The Hawkins-Best-Coney model (2004) identifies demographic factors as external variables which impact upon consumer decision making. Demographics, as well as being consumer characteristics, also influence consumers' lifestyles, which in turn have a bearing on patterns of acculturation (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). Various demographic factors have been mentioned in the literature as having a relationship with acculturation, including age, gender, income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country, generational status, profession, and nationality. While some studies have looked at the relationship between demographics and the acculturation of immigrants, which also included the consequences for consumer behaviour, very few studies of this nature have been conducted involving the British Indian population. This research will examine in detail both the relationship of demographics with acculturation as well as the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour for these consumers. Through this approach it will be possible to develop profiles of the acculturating consumers.

1.5 Scope of the research

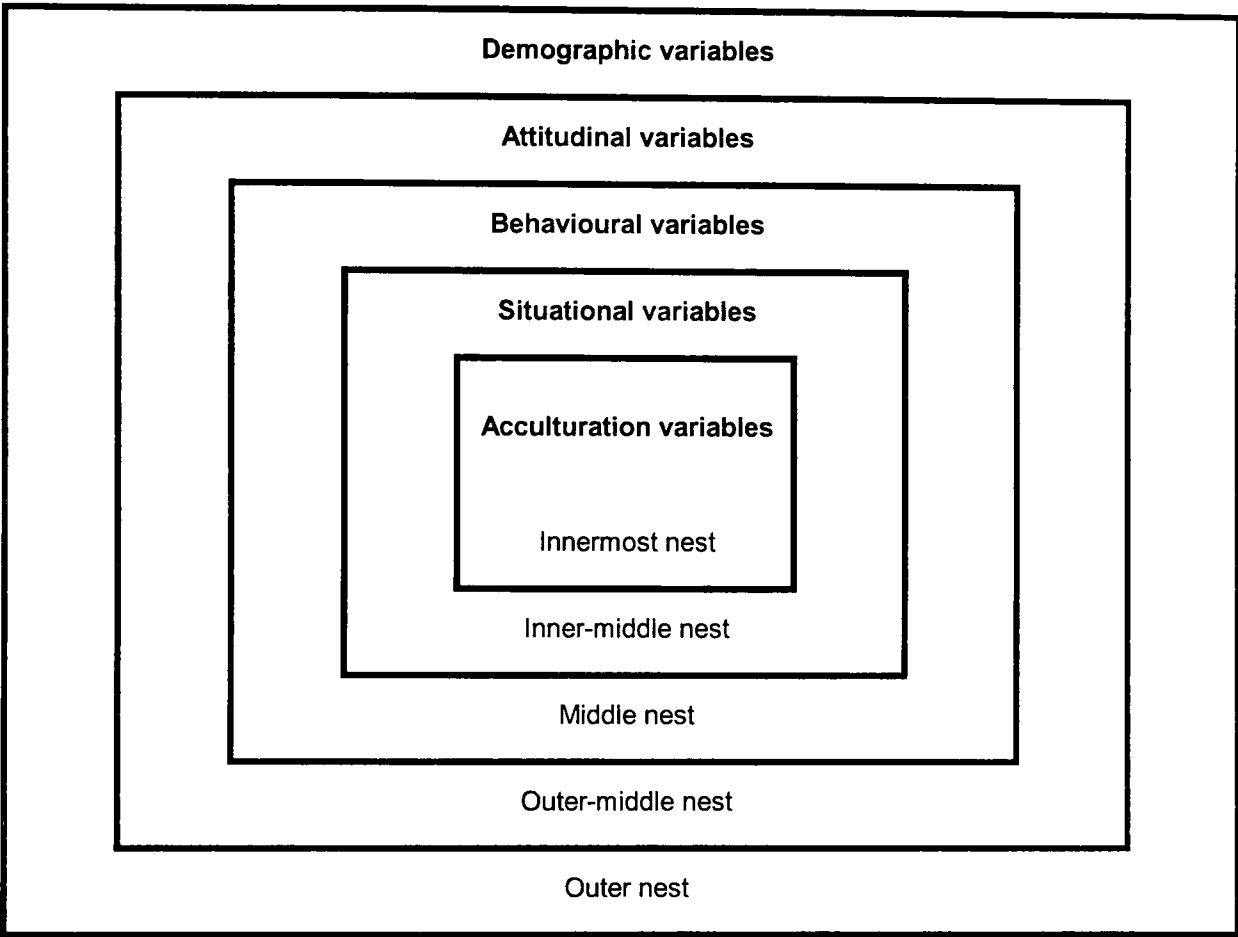
Numerous consumer acculturation studies using either the acculturation or socialisation perspectives have been conducted by researchers around the world.

However, at the time of this research very few studies have applied the acculturation perspective in the UK context. Given this scarcity, and in view of increasing interest in consumer acculturation in the UK, this research aims to fill this gap in the acculturation literature. In so doing, there are two issues to consider in relation to the scope of this consumer acculturation research. The first relates to the consumer variables to be considered, while the second concerns the products types which are included.

Considerable attention has been devoted in the literature to the role of demographic variables in acculturation studies. The importance of both demographic and acculturation variables in studies of consumer behaviour of ethnic minorities has been highlighted in the nested approach model developed by Cui and Choudhury (2002). Berry (1997) also suggests that acculturation research is incomplete if it fails to investigate the demography of the individuals being studied.

Authors such as Khairullah and Khairullah (1999) and Padilla (1980) have studied the relationship between demographic variables and acculturation, while others have investigated whether acculturation impacts upon consumer behaviour (Kara and Kara, 1996; Penaloza, 1994). However, this research will consider both the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation and also the impact of acculturation on consumer behaviour. The rationale for following this approach can be explained by referring to the nested approach model (Cui and Choudhury, 2002) in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Nested approach model



Source: adapted from Cui, G. and Choudhury, P. (2002), p. 58.

The innermost nest in the nested model contains the acculturation variables, which are also termed endogenous variables. These variables closely capture the characteristics of ethnic minorities, but are also relatively intangible and difficult to measure. The outer nest consists of more tangible characteristics, such as demographics. These exogenous variables tend to relate more broadly to the ethnic groups (Cui and Choudhury, 2002; Song and Shin, 2004) and have the advantage of being relatively easy to measure. The intermediate level includes situational variables, behavioural variables and attitudinal variables, which tend to be more tangible and easier to measure than acculturation, but less tangible and more difficult to measure than demographic variables.

Researchers who study the consumer behaviour of ethnic minorities need to ascertain which variables exert greatest influence on consumption outcomes such as brand preferences. Using demographic variables to profile acculturation categories, can provide a blueprint for studying acculturation whereby academicians and practitioners have the flexibility of using either broad-based demographic variables, which are easy to identify, or the less tangible acculturation variables. This is only possible, however, if the relationship between the demographic variables and acculturation is established. Using this kind of approach offers researchers and academicians the potential to organise consumers into segments on the basis of common acculturation patterns; to interrogate the relationship between these acculturation categories and their demographic variables; and then, should a relationship be found between them, to access different acculturated groups on the basis of their demographic characteristics. This method enables a balance to be achieved between achieving subtle insights related to acculturation, while accessing consumers using variables which are easier to identify and measure.

The second research scope issue relates to the choice of product types to be included in the study. Most previous studies examining the impact of acculturation on consumer behaviour consider a single product type. For example, Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) studied clothing, while Podoshen (2006) studied automobiles. Consequently, there is a limited understanding of how acculturation impacts upon consumer behaviour for different product types (Ogden et al., 2004); leading to calls for research involving greater breadth in the product types than is seen in single product studies (Burton, 2000; Laroche et al., 1997 and Omar et al., 2004). This study responds to these calls by examining a wide range of high and low

involvement and high and low value products and services. In selecting products for inclusion, the researcher has also been mindful of the fact that some products, such as food, are more culturally loaded than others; and that this issue might also alter the consumer behaviour outcomes.

1.6 Research objectives and implementation

As discussed earlier, although previous research examining consumer acculturation in the UK has taken a socialisation perspective, few have adopted the acculturation perspective. This research will look at the acculturation of British Indians from the acculturation perspective using Berry's (1980) taxonomy, which is a bidimensional model of acculturation.

- *The first objective of this research is to determine whether the three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) apply to the British Indian population.*

Berry's framework (1980) is one of the most widely applied bidimensional models (see Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Navas et al., 2007; Phinney et al., 1990; amongst others) for studying acculturation from an acculturation perspective. Hui et al. (1992) provide empirical evidence of the capability of the framework's ability to capture the complex nature of acculturation. The framework suggests that the acculturation categories into which the immigrants fall are a function both of their identification with their original culture as well as their participation in the host culture. The relative levels of these two aspects result in four acculturation

categories, namely: *separation*, wherein individuals display high ethnic cultural identification and low host cultural behaviour; *integration*, wherein individuals exhibit high ethnic identity as well as high participation in both ethnic and host cultural behaviours; *assimilation*, wherein individuals show low ethnic identification and high host cultural participation; and *marginalisation*, wherein individuals have low ethnic identification, yet exhibit cultural behaviour acceptable to neither culture. In keeping with previous researchers using survey methods to study acculturation (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mendoza, 1989; Phinney et al., 1990), this research will study British Indians using Berry's (1980) separation, integration and assimilation categories. The research will also adopt the Cultural Life Style Inventory (CLSI) designed by Mendoza (1989), as the basis for measuring the acculturation categories of immigrants. The underlying assumption is that the categories of acculturation presented by Berry (1980) will exist in the British Indian population.

- *The second research objective is to examine whether there are significant differences in the brand preference of individuals in each of the three acculturation categories for the British Indian population.*

Previous studies (Kang and Kim, 1998; Kara and Kara, 1996; Shim and Chen, 1996; amongst others) have shown that the consumption patterns of ethnic consumers vary according to the extent of their acculturation. This is because in endeavouring to adapt to new circumstances, ethnic consumers often try to modify their lifestyles and consumption behaviour, which includes their preferences for particular brands (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mathur et al., 2003). Furthermore, consumers

prefer brands that they think are used by others that are similar to themselves (Ross, 1971), such as those within their acculturation category. This research will examine such brand preferences, focusing on a range of ethnic and host brands, in order to establish whether there are different patterns of preference in each of the three acculturation categories.

- *The third objective is to investigate whether the brand preferences of British Indians of a particular acculturation category are significantly different from that of those in the other two acculturation categories.*

While acculturation is the degree of immersion in the ethnic or host culture (Mendoza, 1989), 'ethnocentrism' is the preference for the 'in-group' over the 'out-group' (Sumner, 1906). Moreover, Berry and Kalin (1995) have indicated that individuals who are highly ethnocentric, have a greater acceptance of preferred groups i.e. 'in-groups' and a lower acceptance of less preferred groups i.e. 'out-groups'. The concepts of 'in-groups' and 'out-groups' in the ethnocentrism literature, are similar to the notion of 'reference groups' in the consumer behaviour literature. The research reported here will operationalise 'in-groups' as ethnic groups, with 'in-group' brands as being ethnic brands; and 'out-groups' as the host groups, with 'out-group' brands being those regarded by immigrants as from the host society. For example, Jet Airways, India's largest private airlines with international operations, would be seen as an ethnic brand, while British Airways would be viewed by British Indians as a host brand. Based on both the ethnocentrism and consumer behaviour literatures, it is therefore suggested that consumers in the separation category will prefer ethnic brands more often than host

brands, consumers in the assimilation category will prefer host brands more often than ethnic brands and consumers in the integration category will have a brand preference pattern in between those of consumers in the other two categories. In case of these propositions being true, this research also intends to investigate whether each of these acculturation categories significantly differs from each of the others in this regard.

- *The fourth objective is to examine the relationship between demographic factors and the acculturation categories of British Indians.*

Earlier studies (e.g. Kara and Kara, 1996; Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Padilla, 1980; Szapocznik et al., 1978) have investigated the relationship between various demographic factors and acculturation. The Hawkins-Best-Coney model (2004) considers both culture and demographics to be external influences on consumer behaviour. The research reported here proposes that amongst British Indians, a range of demographic factors, including age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, generational status, length of stay in the UK, job type and nationality, are associated with membership of particular acculturation categories.

- *The fifth objective is to investigate whether demographic factors moderate the relationship between acculturation categories and the brand preferences of British Indians*

Material goods purchased by members of particular subcultures are a function of their consumer acculturation (Ogden et al., 2004). Given that these objects are laden with personal meanings, demographics may have an influence on the preferred goods (Wallendorf and Arnould, 1988). This research proposes that the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference will change as a function of such demographic factors.

The research reported here, which is primarily quantitative in nature, will be preceded by some qualitative work. The qualitative phase will involve an extensive literature review followed by a series of focus groups and dyad interviews, in order to identify key issues for inclusion in the questionnaire that is the research instrument for the quantitative survey. Subsequently, the developed questionnaire will be pretested to evaluate its content validity, then piloted online prior to the collection of data for the main survey. A large and recent database containing British Indian consumers' details has been provided by the food producer Tilda Ltd. The acculturation measurement scale CLSI will be used to identify and measure the acculturation categories in the sample drawn from the British Indian population.

A variety of statistical approaches, including one-way ANOVA, CHAID analysis and Kruskal-Wallis tests are used to test whether the three acculturation categories differ in their brand preference patterns. The relationships between demographic factors and these acculturation categories will also be examined. Finally, the data will be analysed using two-way ANOVA to test whether demographic variables moderate the relationship between the acculturation categories and brand preferences.

Murphy (1987) explains that beyond having tangible benefits, brands also offer intangible benefits such as ‘values’ that a consumer ascribes to a brand and the ‘symbolic meaning’ that is construed from them. The criteria that consumers apply to evaluate brands in new cultural settings are dependent on their new values and lifestyles, the importance they attach to brand names and the influence of others who they view as being similar to themselves (Bristow and Asquith, 1999). The research reported here will operationalise brand preferences as either ‘ethnic’ or ‘host’ based on the position that these brands occupy in the minds of British Indians.

1.7 Contributions of the research

As noted earlier, research on the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour has been studied in cross-cultural psychology across the world, particularly in North America. However, there is a dearth of such studies based in the UK. This study aims to develop the foundations for studying consumer acculturation of British Indians. In doing so, it aspires to make several academic and practitioner contributions.

At the academic level, the research will go beyond the ‘socialisation perspective’ to examine acculturation among British Indian consumers. It will contribute to the UK consumer acculturation literature by showing the possibility of embracing an ‘acculturation perspective’ when studying the consumption goals of this ethnic group.

The study seeks to establish the adaptability of both Berry's (1980) acculturation framework and Mendoza's (1989) acculturation measurement scale to the British Indian context. This should pave the way for future researchers to use these while studying this ethnic group. Specifically, the study will show whether British Indians can be classified into the separation, integration and assimilation categories laid out by Berry (1980), and whether individuals across these categories differ in terms of their consumer behaviour, as expressed by their brand preferences. The study will also question the appropriateness of viewing assimilation as the only mode of acculturation.

The research will also consider the suitability of CHAID as a method for analysing categorical data, by extending its application to this consumer acculturation study. CHAID which searches for relationship between the predictor variables i.e. acculturation categories and demographics, and an outcome measure i.e. brand preference, can investigate whether acculturation categories are primary differentiators for brand preferences. This would shed light on whether 'acculturation' can potentially be considered as a segmentation variable for studying brand preference of British Indians.

Furthermore, the research aims to contribute to the existing literature by validating the relationship between various demographic factors and different acculturation categories. The sampling of a cross-section of British Indians differing on a variety of demographic factors will help in identifying the demographic differences between the acculturation categories. The research, which will examine the relationship between demographics and acculturation along with the effect of acculturation on

consumer behaviour, will help to profile these acculturation categories with consequences for practitioners and for policy makers.

The practitioner contributions will relate particularly to the potential of acculturation as a segmentation variable. The study also seeks to highlight the implications for developing marketing strategies to target ethnic minorities. Understanding the characteristics and brand preferences of different acculturation categories of British Indians, could enable practitioners to devise brand propositions and offerings that might be more relevant for each group. Furthermore, brand owners catering to a particular acculturation category could gain insight into possible brand extensions for making their brands relevant to other categories. This could also provide important insights into the rationale for classifying brands as ethnic and host. Gaining a deeper understanding of different acculturation categories could also help explain the differences in consumer behaviour within the British Indian population. In terms of policy making, the potential for programmes which match the particular requirements of the acculturation category could be revealed. For example, programmes to assist in cultural transitions and social adjustments targeting ethnic minority individuals.

1.8 Structure of the thesis

This thesis includes seven chapters. Chapter One introduces the main topics of the research as well as presenting its structure. Chapter Two is the literature review component of the thesis. This chapter focuses on the concept of acculturation, and also reviews studies which have examined consumer behaviour in the context of

acculturation. The purpose is to understand whether acculturation impacts on immigrant consumer behaviour. This discussion will show that consumer acculturation studies can be based either on the outcomes of acculturation or by focusing on the process of acculturation itself. As this research is primarily concerned with acculturation outcomes and their effect on the consumption goals of British Indians, uncovering the processes that lead to these is considered beyond the scope of this research.

Chapter Two also reviews literature examining the relationship of demographic factors with acculturation. Based on the theoretical background provided in Chapter Two, Chapter Three lays the foundation for the research, presenting the proposed model outlining the hypotheses to be tested. Chapter Four describes the research methodology employed, which includes the philosophy of research and a discussion on research design; describes the development of the research instrument; details the data collection process and the data analysis techniques used. It also considers how the study conforms to research ethics.

Chapter Five presents the results of the data analysis, while Chapter Six discusses the results obtained and examines how these relate to prior studies. Chapter Seven provides a summary of the key research findings and their implications both for academics and practitioners. The limitations of the research are outlined along with a discussion of future research priorities.

1.9 Summary

Section 1.1 has elucidated the main themes of the research, explaining that it aims to apply Berry's (1980) acculturation taxonomy to British Indians. This will involve classifying consumers into the three acculturation categories of separation, integration and assimilation; studying whether the brand preference patterns of these acculturation categories differ from each other; and examining the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation categories. In accordance with the main themes of this research, Section 1.2 describes the concept of acculturation; Section 1.3 looks at whether acculturation affects consumer behaviour; and Section 1.4 touches upon the need to study the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation. Section 1.5 examines the scope of the research. Section 1.6 goes on to explain the rationale and objectives of the research and Section 1.7 highlights the possible contributions of the research. Section 1.8 presents the structure of the thesis. Although acculturation has long been considered an important concept in studying immigrant consumer behaviour, hardly any studies have examined consumption in depth based on outcomes of acculturation in the UK.

Considering the paucity of previous research, together with growing interest in the ethnic market in Britain, this study's main contribution is to develop what is known about consumer acculturation among British Indians. This includes applying Berry's (1980) acculturation taxonomy and Mendoza's (1989) acculturation measurement instrument in a new context.

Chapter Two: Acculturation and Consumer Behaviour

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the concept of acculturation. Various studies have explored the nature, models and types of acculturation. The literature refers to the notion of consumer acculturation, which has been described as the application of concepts of general acculturation to the consumption process. Consumer behaviour itself has been described as a part of the field of human behaviour. The influence of culture on the expression of an individual's behaviour is also often mentioned in research studies. Indeed, some researchers indicate that an individual's consumer behaviour can be studied through their consumption of brands. The influence of acculturation on consumer behaviour, expressed in terms of an individual's brand preferences is the subject of this chapter. The literature reviewed here provides the theoretical foundation for the research described in this thesis.

The structure of the chapter is as follows: Section 2.2 looks at acculturation, examining studies that conceptualise acculturation and introducing the concept of consumer acculturation; Section 2.3 examines consumer behaviour, with a specific focus on the relationship between acculturation and consumer behaviour expressed in terms of brand preference; Section 2.4 looks at how demographic factors influence consumer behaviour and how these are also associated with acculturation; Section 2.5 gives a summary of the key issues discussed in the chapter, discusses the relevance of these issues to the research and links this chapter with the next, which lays out a conceptual framework for the research and explains the hypotheses.

2.2 Acculturation

Redfield et al. (1936) defined acculturation as “those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups” (p. 149). According to Rudmin (2003, p. 9):

Acculturation is an ancient and probably universal human experience.

Inscriptions dating from 2370 BC show that the Sumerian rulers of Mesopotamia established written codes of law in order to protect traditional cultural practices from acculturative change and to establish fixed rules for commerce with foreigners.

War and economic disparities between countries have historically been the cause of considerable migration. Developed nations such as the USA, the UK and Canada, especially since the Second World War, have taken a more liberal approach to immigration policies (Rickard, 1994). This has enabled the contact of two different cultures making acculturation an important phenomenon. The movement of workforces across the world has accelerated with the advent of technologies that are ‘shrinking’ the globe. Information technology is making it easier for cultures across time zones to be in touch with each other. The extent to which organisations recruit skilled people from across the world is also leading to a greater migration of populations (Rudmin, 2003). Consequently, there are implications both for the individuals who migrate and their culture, as well as for the culture of the host nation.

Distinctions can be made between acculturation at a population level and acculturation at an individual level (Graves, 1967). At a population level, acculturation can result in changes in the political organisation and social structure of a country. At an individual level, there can be changes in the psychological characteristics of human beings as a result of being in touch with different cultures and due to participation in the process of acculturation that the cultural group is undergoing. Such a change in psychological characteristics can bring about changes in individual identity, behaviours, attitudes and values (Berry, 1990).

Although ‘acculturation’ originated in anthropology, it is now an important area in psychology, having become the focal part of cross-cultural psychology (Berry, 1990; Liebkind, 2000; Ward, 1996). According to Berry (2001, p. 616), “acculturation is a process involving two or more groups, with consequences for both; in effect, however, the contact experiences have much greater impact on the non-dominant group and its members”. Kim (1985) also suggests that the influence of mainstream culture on the non-dominant immigrant culture is more significant than the other way around. This may be because there are relatively large numbers of people in the host culture compared to the immigrants and therefore a greater need amongst the immigrants to adapt to the mainstream culture.

2.2.1 Models of acculturation

Before examining different models of acculturation, it is useful to understand the definition of the word ‘ethnic’, as it is frequently used when acculturation is explained. Etymologically speaking, the word ‘ethnic’ owes its birth to the Greek word *ethnos*, which describes people of a tribe or a nation. The adjective ‘*ethnicos*’ means national (Betancourt and Lopez, 1993).

A group of people, who believe in the commonality of their ancestry, possibly due to similarities in their customs or physical type or because of their collective memories of colonisation or immigration, have often been described as an ethnic group (Lindridge and Dibb, 2003). Ethnic groups are socially derived minorities within a larger host society whose members participate in shared activities built around their common origin and culture (Yinger, 1986).

In the acculturation literature, two models are proposed to explain the manner in which acculturation takes place. The first is the unidimensional model, which talks of a continuum of acculturation, with the ethnic minority and the host cultures at either end of the scale. The model assumes that over time, ethnic minorities move along this continuum, gradually losing their original culture and moving closer to that of their host nation (Gans, 1979; Gordon, 1964). The ethnic group thus permeates into the mainstream culture. With this, the ethnic group as a separate entity disappears, and its distinctive values evaporate (Gordon, 1964).

Similarly, Hair Jr and Anderson (1972) described acculturation as ranging from the 'unacculturated extreme' to the 'acculturated extreme'. In the former, ethnic cultural behaviour patterns prevail and in the latter, behaviour patterns of the host culture have been adopted. The ethnic minority population eventually merges into the host population. This involves a relinquishing of the traditional values, customs, beliefs and behaviours of the minority culture and the adoption of those of the host culture (Garcia and Lega, 1979). When an immigrant fully adopts mainstream values and gives up their cultural heritage, they are said to have 'assimilated' (Ogden et al., 2004).

Acculturation based on the unidimensional model places biculturalism at the midpoint between the ethnic and host cultural extremes (Ryder et al., 2000). However, this approach has its limitations, because unidimensional models are unable to differentiate between individuals who associate with both ethnic and host cultures as against those who associate with neither (Mavreas et al., 1989; Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980). This is because such models typically allocate scores to individuals on the basis of their answers to questions based on single or multiple aspects of acculturation, such as language use, cultural pride, social relationships and cultural behaviour. Responses are in the ordinal format and are used in conjunction with a scoring system that sums or averages responses across scale items, losing its ability to tap bicultural adaptation (Magana et al., 1996). For example, one person might mainly have scores in the middle of the scale, another might have answered an equal number of items at the high and low ends of the response set and none in the middle, while a third could have a variety of responses spread across all items. Yet all of these individuals would be identified as being bicultural, based on achieving the same overall mean score. However, only one of the three, the person having the majority of their scores in the middle of the scale could truly claim to be bicultural. Thus, unidimensional models do not always accurately reflect the underlying pattern of acculturation.

The bidimensional model of acculturation, however, suggests that ethnic minorities embrace certain aspects of the host country's culture while retaining certain aspects of their native culture (Berry, 1980). Acculturation of a minority individual can therefore be determined by assessing the degree of assimilation to the majority culture as well as the degree of retention of the minority culture (Mendoza and Martinez, 1981).

Thus, while unidimensional models focus primarily on determining the degree of immersion into an alternate culture, bidimensional models look at levels of immersion into both the host and the ethnic cultures. The unidimensional approach is thus referred to as monocultural, while the bidimensional approach is termed multicultural (Mendoza, 1989).

A comparison of the unidimensional and bidimensional models was carried out by Ryder et al. (2000), who proposed that acculturation involves changes in the individual's sense of self and thus results in changes in self-identity due to the need to accommodate old and new cultures. They hypothesised that, in the unidimensional model of acculturation, the degree to which the individual identifies with the ethnic and host culture will be inversely related; and in the bidimensional model, these two identifications will be independent of each other. To operationalise this, they compared the two models in the context of self-identity and adjustment. Their results support the bidimensional approach because it provides more information and a more valid framework for understanding acculturation. Four criteria necessary to infer superiority of the bidimensional model over the unidimensional model were met in the study; namely that the two dimensions:

(a) could be reliably measured

For example, strong association was obtained between the host subscale and the variables indicating exposure to the new culture. If individuals received a large part of their education in America, the scores were high on the host subscale. The reverse was seen to be true for the ethnic subscale.

(b) showed validity

The ethnic and host dimensions of cultural identity showed coherent patterns of personality correlates and did not show opposite poles of a single dimension.

(c) were independent

The ethnic and host dimensions were independent of each other. The extent to which an individual is seen as being embedded within a group, known as interdependent self-identity, was associated with the ethnic dimension; and the extent to which an individual is seen as being a separate entity, termed independent self-identity, was associated with the host dimension. A high score on both interdependent and independent self-identity was associated with having a bicultural identity.

(d) showed distinctive and non-inverse patterns of correlations with external variables of interest.

The two dimensions of cultural identity were independent and distinctive in their correlates with measures of self-identity and adjustment.

Ryder et al. (2000) also concluded that the bidimensional paradigm could reliably be used to measure several different ethnic groups. This is because they achieved consistent results with samples of Chinese, non-Chinese East Asian and with one diverse group of acculturating individuals in North America.

Based on these findings and also on wider debate in the literature, there appears to be greater support for the use of bidimensional models in studies of acculturation.

2.2.2 Studies on acculturation

In recent decades there has been a range of studies on acculturation, largely conducted in the US and Canada. The psychology of acculturation, phases of acculturation and varieties of adaptation are some of the areas that have been explored within the subject area. Table 2.1 summarises the studies on acculturation involving different ethnic groups.

Table 2.1 Studies on acculturation

	Country	Ethnic group studied	Author/s	Year	Subject of study
1	USA	Hispanics	Szapocznik et al.	1978	To develop a psychosocial model of acculturation intended to measure acculturation differences in immigrant families
2	Canada	Many acculturating groups based on previous studies	Berry	1980	Acculturation is not only assimilation. Acculturation has four varieties of adaptation—Assimilation, Integration, Rejection and Deculturation
3	USA	Mexican Americans	Padilla	1980	The role of cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty in acculturation
4	Canada	Indians	Kurian	1986	Intergenerational integration with special reference to Indian families
5	Canada	Many acculturating groups	Berry et al.	1987	Comparative study of acculturative stress involving immigrants, refugees, native peoples, sojourners and ethnic groups
6	Canada and Australia	Many acculturating groups	Berry et al.	1989	Acculturation attitudes in plural societies
7	USA	Vietnamese	Nguyen and Williams	1989	The stability of traditional family values among Vietnamese adolescents and their parents as a function of the length of time in the USA
8	Canada	Many acculturating groups	Berry	1990	Psychological adaptations that individuals make when they move between cultures
9	USA	Korean Americans	Jun et al.	1993	To investigate whether cultural identification (attitudinal) and level of acculturation (behavioural) are determinants of modes of acculturation

10	Canada	Many acculturating groups based on previous studies	Berry	1997	Use of a conceptual framework, involving both group and individual level variables, within which immigration, acculturation and adaptation were investigated
11	Canada	Many acculturating groups based on previous studies	Berry	1999b	Intercultural relations in plural societies
12	Canada	Many acculturating groups based on previous studies	Berry	2001	Development of a framework for understanding a 'psychology of immigration' linking acculturation (cross-cultural psychology) and intergroup relations (social psychology)
13	Canada	Vietnamese, Korean and East Indian groups	Kwak and Berry	2001	Generational differences in acculturation among Asian families
14	UK	British Asians	Hutnik and Barrett	2003	Whether four styles of cultural adaptation obtained twenty years ago with a sample of British Asian adolescents are still relevant in the new millennium
15	Spain	African immigrants	Navas et al.	2007	Acculturation strategies and attitudes of African immigrants versus host population

Some authors have written about acculturational differences across generations of immigrant families. Intergenerational or acculturational differences develop because younger members of the family tend to acculturate more rapidly than the older ones (Szapocznik et al., 1978). Writing on intergenerational integration, with special reference to Indian families in Canada, Kurian (1986) notes that cultural adaptation to modern society is easier for second and third generation immigrants as compared to first generation. While parents in immigrant families adhere strongly to traditional family values regardless of their time in the host country, adolescents tend to disagree with these values, creating a generation gap (Nguyen and Williams, 1989).

Berry (1980) has researched and written extensively on the subject of acculturation. He suggests a three-phase course to the process of acculturation: contact, conflict

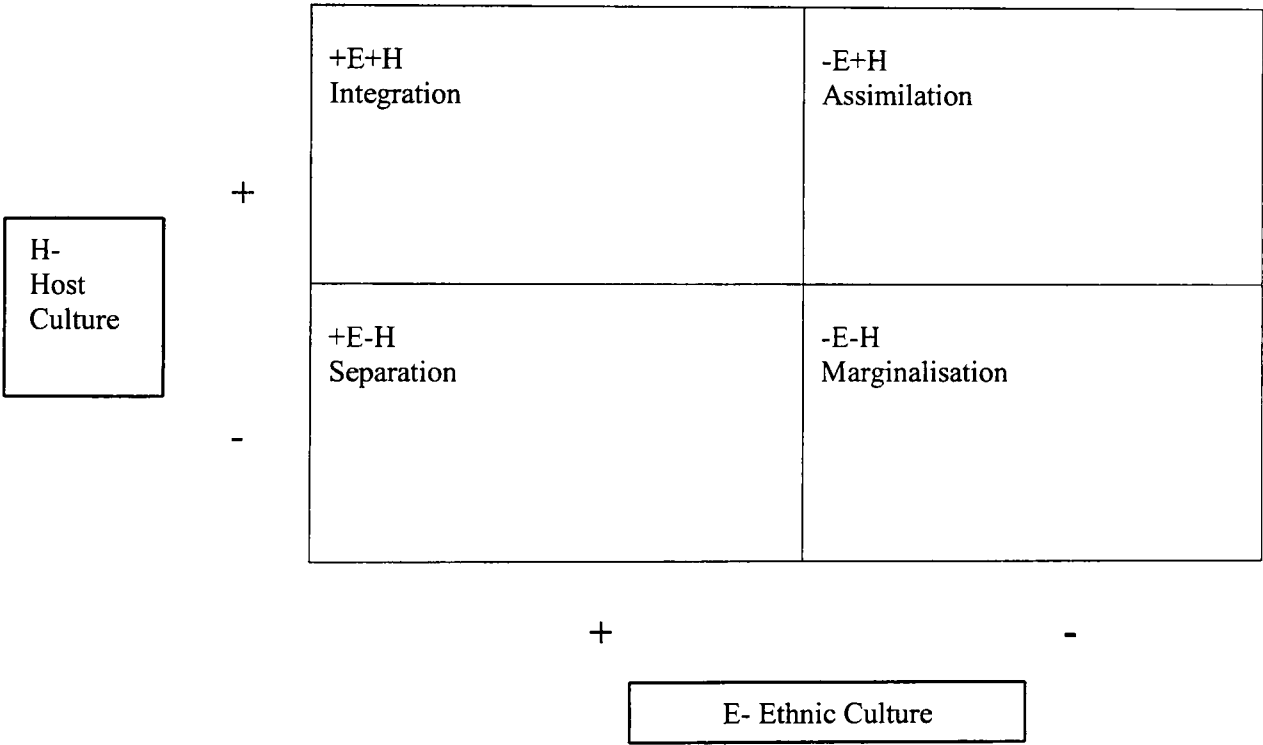
and adaptation. The first phase is a necessary aspect of acculturation which involves interaction between cultures that is continuous. The conflict phase occurs only when individuals are resistant to giving up aspects of their original culture. The last phase of acculturative adaptation results in a variety of ways in which stabilisation of the conflict takes place. These varieties of acculturative adaptation are referred to as marginalisation, separation, integration and assimilation. Berry and Kim (1988), Kim (1980) and Choe (1984) observe that initially, the attitude and behaviour of immigrants tend to swing back and forth between ethnic and host cultures, wherein the attitudinal and behavioural components of acculturation may change at a different pace (Hui et al., 1992). Eventually, these immigrants settle into more stable lifestyles in terms of their attitudes and behaviours. Similarly, Beiser et al. (1988) suggest that for most acculturating immigrants, adaptation to the host culture will ultimately take place.

In his seminal paper on acculturation, Berry (1980) concludes that this concept of 'adaptation' is the eventual phase of acculturation, involving stabilisation of the conflict. The route through which this adaptation takes place need not necessarily be solely via assimilation. He defined four varieties of acculturative adaptation, namely: rejection, integration, assimilation and deculturation. This fourfold taxonomy was stabilised in its present form into the acculturation outcomes of 'separation', 'integration', 'assimilation' and 'marginalisation' (Berry, 1997).

2.2.3 Frameworks of acculturation

Berry’s (1980) theoretical framework argues that acculturation can be represented by a bidimensional model leading to four acculturation outcomes (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Berry’s framework–four varieties of acculturation



Source: adapted from Berry, J. W. (1997), p. 10.

In the past, the words ‘varieties’ (Berry, 1980), ‘strategies’ (Berry, 1997, 1999a, 1999b), ‘modes’ (Berry et al., 1989) ‘attitudes’ (Berry et al., 1989) have been used interchangeably to refer to these four states of acculturation. To maintain uniformity throughout, this thesis uses the word ‘categories’ or ‘outcomes’, hereafter, to refer to the above four states.

Table 2.2 Berry’s acculturation categories

Assimilation	When individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural heritage and seek daily interactions with the host culture.
Integration	When there is an interest in both maintaining one’s original culture and engaging in daily interaction with the host culture.
Separation	When individuals place a value on holding on to their ethnic culture and at the same time wish to avoid interaction with the host culture.
Marginalisation	When there is little possibility or interest in cultural maintenance and little interest in having relationships with others.

Source: adapted from Berry, J. W. (1997), p. 10.

As Table 2.2 shows, Berry’s acculturation categories are a function of an individual’s identification with their ethnic culture and their relationship or interaction with the host culture.

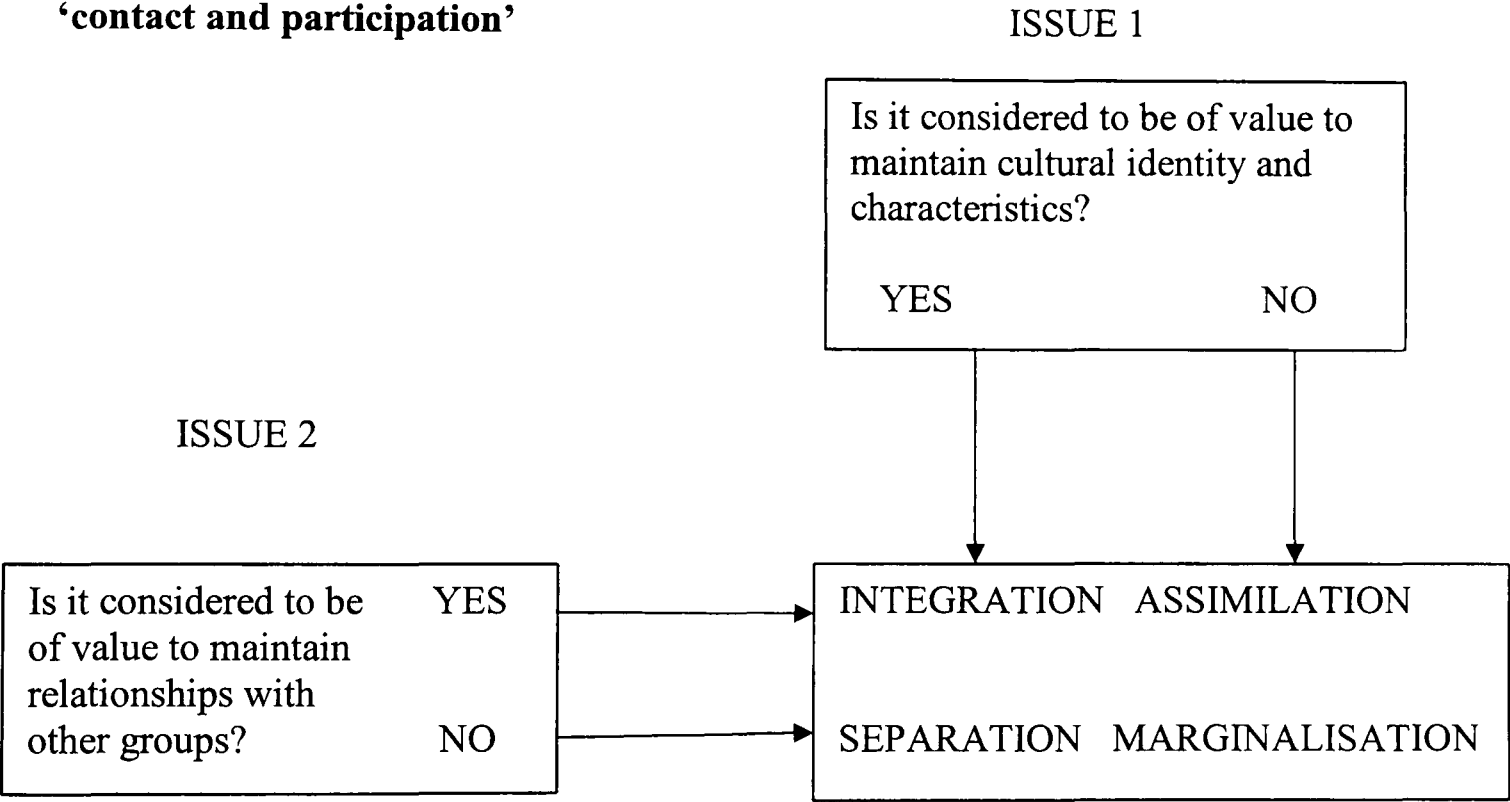
Reviewing the studies that led to the formulation of Berry’s acculturation framework enables a better understanding of the way in which it was developed. One of the earliest studies by Sommerlad and Berry (1970) sought to understand the role of ethnic identification in distinguishing between attitudes towards assimilation and integration of the aborigines in Australia. At that time, Australian Government policy proposed a change from ‘assimilation’ to ‘integration’ of aborigines into the host culture. This generated interest in the ways in which aborigines wished to relate to the larger Australian society. In order to meet their objectives, Sommerlad and Berry (1970) constructed two attitude scales, one relating to assimilation and the other relating to integration. Each of these scales had nine items, with a dichotomy of ‘high and low’ assimilation and integration being obtained by splitting each variable at the median. To assess ethnic identification, respondents were asked

whether they considered themselves primarily to be aborigine or Australian. The results suggested that those individuals who identified themselves as 'aborigines' had a favourable attitude towards integration, while those who identified themselves as 'Australians' had a favourable attitude towards assimilation. While assimilation was found to be a unilateral process, integration emphasised mutual adjustment between the cultural groups. Although assimilation and integration differed from each other on ethnic identification, individuals in both these categories went through similar sub-processes, such as wanting to be accepted by clubs and institutions from the dominant society, albeit to differing degrees. Following on from these findings, Berry (1980) argued that acculturation should be viewed as multi-linear, using a set of alternatives rather than a single dimension, leading to assimilation and eventual absorption into the host society. Consequently, he suggested that there was a need to construct scales for other acculturation alternatives, such as integration and separation. This led to the development of the overall acculturation framework outlined in Figure 2.1.

Two cultural issues underlie the framework. The first, cultural maintenance, refers to the extent to which cultural identity is important. The second, contact and participation, is the extent to which individuals simultaneously become involved with the other cultural group. Four acculturation outcomes are formulated (Berry, 1980), based on responses to two questions relating to these cultural issues. These two questions are 'Is it considered to be of value to maintain cultural identity and characteristics?', which is related to the issue of 'cultural maintenance'; and 'Is it considered to be of value to maintain relationships with other groups?', which is related to the issue of 'contact and participation'. When the first question is answered 'no', and the second question is answered 'yes', the assimilation option is

indicated. The terminology used for these acculturation outcomes is amended in later studies by Berry et al. (1987, 1989) and Berry (1990, 1997) as assimilation, integration, separation and marginalisation. Figure 2.2 shows the outcomes of acculturation based on the issues of ‘cultural maintenance’ and ‘contact and participation’.

Figure 2.2 Four varieties of acculturation based on ‘cultural maintenance’ and ‘contact and participation’



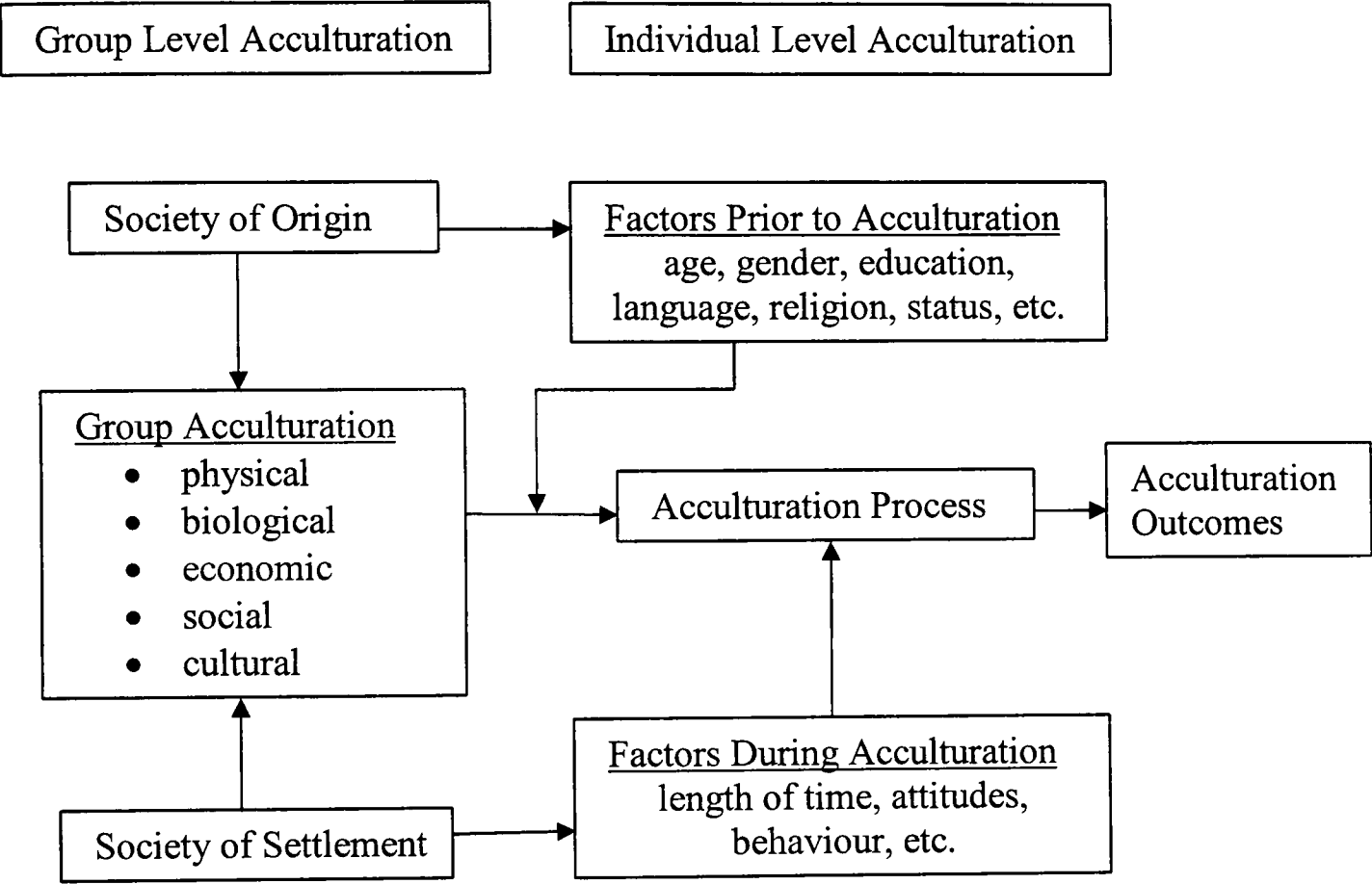
Source: adapted from Berry, J. W. (1997), p. 10.

Berry (1980) and Berry et al. (1987) operationalised this conceptualisation in studies involving immigrants, refugees, native peoples, sojourners, and ethnic groups in Canada, by sorting the total numbers of questions into two sets – one pertaining to ‘cultural maintenance’ and the other to ‘contact and participation’. Each question in these sets had five response options based on a Likert Scale ranging from 1 ‘not at all’ to 5 ‘very much’. If the mean score for the first set was more than three points

and for the second set was fewer than three points, this suggested separation. If the mean score for the first set was fewer than three points and for the second set was more than three points, it indicated assimilation. If the mean scores for both sets of questions were over three points, the outcome was integration. A mean score on both sets of fewer than three points indicated a marginalisation outcome. In their later studies, Berry et al. (1989) and Berry (1990, 1997) constructed and used scales in which each question had four response options, each pertaining to one of the four acculturation outcomes, making it easier to categorise individuals into the four outcomes of acculturation. Recently, Berry et al. (2006) confirmed the existence of four acculturation outcomes in a study involving over 5000 immigrant youths who have settled in 13 countries.

In 1997, Berry attempted to systematise acculturation studies by proposing a framework for carrying out acculturation research. Figure 2.3 shows the framework he developed, which suggests that a combination of both acculturation categories and individual level key variables must be considered in order to fully study acculturation. These individual level key variables are age, gender, education, length of time in the host country, language, religion, generation, and acculturation attitudes and behaviours.

Figure 2.3 A framework for acculturation research



Source: adapted from Berry, J. W. (1997), p. 15.

A range of studies carried out by Berry and his colleagues (Berry, 1980, 1990, 1997, 1999a, 1999b, 2001; Berry et al., 1987, 1989) have defined and measured acculturation categories in a variety of acculturating groups including native peoples, immigrants and established ethnic groups in Australia and Canada. The studies have provided clear conceptual and empirical evidence of the scientific status of acculturation categories across a variety of acculturation groups (Berry et al., 1989). Despite acculturation being one of the most complex areas of cross-cultural psychology, the framing of the field of immigration, acculturation and adaptation in terms of the outcomes of acculturative adaptation has provided consistent and potentially applicable findings (Berry, 1997).

Similar to Berry (1980), Hutnik (1985, 1986, 1991) described four acculturation categories in her study of British Asians in Birmingham in the UK. She termed these: assimilative, where individuals affirm the host culture more than the ethnic culture; dissociative, where the ethnic culture is affirmed more than the host culture; acculturative, where both the ethnic and the host cultures are affirmed; and marginal, where individuals are unable to affirm either culture. Hutnik's (1991) framework is based on an individual self-categorising according to their identification with their ethnic culture; and their styles of cultural adaptation, which represents their interaction with the host culture. A later study by Hutnik and Barrett (2003) confirmed that the four categories of acculturation amongst this population were still valid.

Penaloza (1994), in her exploration of consumer acculturation through the consumption experiences of Mexican Americans, also talks about acculturation as being a process of movement, translation and adaptation of the immigrants in the host society. Similar to Berry's (1980) acculturation categories, Penaloza's acculturation outcomes are: segregation, which is the maintenance of the culture of immigration; integration, involving the expression of a hybrid combination of the two cultures; assimilation, which is assimilation into the host culture; and marginalisation, involving resistance to both host and ethnic culture.

While the three acculturation frameworks discussed have some differences in terms of nomenclature, they have the same underlying concept. It is interesting to note that Hutnik (1991) and Penaloza (1994) have both cited Berry (1980) in their studies. This confirms Berry (1980) as the originator of the acculturation framework based on varieties of acculturative adaptation.

Phinney et al. (1990) studied the acculturation attitudes and self-esteem amongst high school and college students of several nationalities in America, using Berry's acculturation framework. The marginalisation category was not included in this study because they considered it to be the least satisfactory alternative for the students and not a viable option when other choices were available. Those individuals favouring separation benefitted from membership of their social group and had high self-esteem; those in the integrated group demonstrated lower self-esteem, due to their endeavours to function normally in both cultures; and assimilated members had a false sense of self accompanied by low self-esteem as result of compromising their group membership altogether.

Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) and Navas et al. (2007) also applied Berry's (1980) framework in their studies. Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) successfully segmented a local Latino market in the US using Berry's acculturation framework and found three segments; separated, integrated and assimilated. Navas et al. (2007) used Berry's framework to study acculturation strategies and attitudes of both the African immigrants and the Spanish host population. They concluded that assimilation strategies were adopted by both immigrants and natives in peripheral domains like politics, work and economics, with separation strategies being adopted by the immigrants in core domains like social, family, religious and ways of thinking.

So far, this section has described acculturation with a specific focus on the individual level and has contrasted two models of acculturation. Various studies and frameworks on acculturation have also been discussed. It is interesting to note that the majority of studies on acculturation have been carried out in the US and Canada.

It is also notable that the framework of acculturation based on acculturative adaptation first proposed by Berry (1980) has subsequently been widely used by other researchers. The next sub-section will look at the concept of consumer acculturation and the different studies that have been carried out in this area, with the aim of exploring whether acculturation affects consumer behaviour.

2.2.4 Consumer acculturation

Consumer acculturation can be regarded as the application of general acculturation ideas to the consumption process, what Penaloza (1994, p. 33) describes as “the general process of movement and adaptation, to the consumer cultural environment in one country by persons from another country”. Similarly, Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005, p. 85) propose that “consumer acculturation is a process by which an individual raised in one culture acquires through first hand experience the consumption related values, behaviour, and customs of a foreign country”. Consumer acculturation is similar to general acculturation in most respects, except that it relates to the learning of the attitudes and behaviours of the host culture by the consumer (O’Guinn et al., 1986). This then has implications for the consumption behaviour of these individuals.

Studies have shown that the consumption patterns of ethnic consumers tend to vary according to their degree of acculturation (Kang and Kim, 1998; Kara and Kara, 1996; O’Guinn et al., 1986; Shim and Chen, 1996). Another concept referred to as ‘ethnocentrism’ is the preference of the in-group over the out-group (Sumner, 1906). An investigation by Berry and Kalin (1995) has linked acculturation to

‘ethnocentrism’. While studying multicultural and ethnic attitudes in Canada, they found that ethnocentrism was moderately low, leading to a more multicultural Canada. Their results also showed that individuals who score highly on ethnocentrism have a relatively higher acceptance of generally preferred groups, and a relatively lower acceptance of generally less preferred groups. In order to understand the theory of ethnocentrism and the way in which it has been linked to consumer behaviour, studies on ethnocentrism will now be considered.

Ethnocentrism was first introduced in the sociology literature by Sumner (1906, p. 13) who explained:

the view of things in which one’s own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it.....Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities and looks with contempt on outsiders.

Ethnocentrism develops when an individual or group of individuals have contact with a society other than their native one; and more so if the two societies are dissimilar (Kent and Burnight, 1951). Ethnocentrism is a way of ensuring survival of groups and their cultures by way of greater cohesion, conformity and loyalty (Sharma et al., 1995). It may not only be restricted to nations but can extend to all kinds of social groups (Murdock, 1931), being a universal phenomenon rooted in intergroup relations (Lewis, 1976).

Originally, ethnocentrism was used to differentiate between ‘in-group’ favouritism and ‘out-group’ dislike. Although it was initially a sociological concept, it has become a psychosocial construct with relevance to culture. It also extends to

consumer behaviour, in that consumers display pride towards objects which portray the symbols and values of their ethnic or national group, the 'in-group'; and show contempt for those objects which portray the symbols and values of the other group, the 'out-group' (Levine and Campbell, 1972).

When ethnocentrism is used in the study of an individual's consumer behaviour, it is referred to as consumer ethnocentrism. Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 280) defined consumer ethnocentrism as "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products". They further elaborated that consumer ethnocentrism is salient in determining an individual's sense of identity, belongingness and the knowledge of what is acceptable purchase behaviour to the 'in-group'.

A consumer's attitude towards a product is often based on the attributes and characteristics of that product. However, this attitude can also be shaped by aspects beyond these product-specific factors, such as brand names and national loyalty. Past experiences with national products and also general traditions and customs play a role in developing the ethnocentric attitudes of consumers (Darling and Kraft, 1977). Both national loyalty and consumer ethnocentrism are manifestations of group influence, which in turn explains product evaluations and consumer product choice (Bruning, 1997). This is because images of a nation or its products are derived from subjective cognitive processes and these images are linked to consumers' attitudes (Morello, 1984). The phenomenon of ethnocentrism can be studied across cultural groups amongst diverse nations (Campbell and Levine, 1968). Herche's (1994) study of the effect of ethnocentric tendencies and marketing

strategy on purchase behaviour amongst US consumers found strong evidence of ethnocentrism in buying decisions.

Moreover, Kaynak and Kara (2002), in their study of national images, lifestyles and ethnocentric behaviour of Turkish consumers revealed different lifestyle groups which were closely correlated to consumers' ethnocentric perceptions. The lifestyle segment that was traditional and more community oriented was high in ethnocentrism, whereas the lifestyle group which was more independent containing more opinion leaders was low in consumer ethnocentrism. Similar research involving Turkish consumers yielded two lifestyle segments (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). Members of cluster 1 were termed 'liberals' or 'trend setters' and were low in ethnocentrism, and similar in purchasing behaviour to consumers in western nations. Members of cluster 2, referred to as 'moderates' or 'survivors' and cluster 3, referred to as 'traditionals' or 'conservatives' were similar to each other. These two clusters were high in ethnocentrism and their demands were not as sophisticated as were those from members of cluster 1, and their purchase behaviour was loyal to the Turkish nation. These authors show that consumer lifestyle segments, consumer ethnocentrism and purchase behaviour can be studied together to arrive at meaningful conclusions about the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behaviour based on consumer lifestyles.

Table 2.3 summarises studies of consumer acculturation involving different ethnic groups, many of which have been conducted in the US.

Table 2.3 Studies of consumer acculturation

	Country	Ethnic group studied	Author/s	Year	Subject of study
1	USA	Foreign students of several nationalities	Hair Jr and Anderson	1972	A study of the relationship between culture, acculturation and consumer behaviour amongst many acculturating groups
2	USA	Hispanics	Hoyer and Deshpande	1982	Buyer behaviour in the context of common convenience products
3	USA	Asian Indians	Sodowsky and Carey	1988	Relationship between acculturation-related demographics and cultural attitudes of an Asian Indian immigrant group
4	USA	Chinese and Mexican Americans	Stayman and Deshpande	1989	Situational ethnicity and consumer behaviour
5	USA	Taiwanese	Lee	1993	Acculturation and advertising communication strategies
6	USA	Hispanics	Penaloza	1994	Critical exploration of consumer acculturation through the consumption experiences of Mexican immigrants
7	USA	Chinese Americans	Shim and Chen	1996	Examining whether acculturation characteristics were predictors of apparel shopping orientations
8	USA	Chinese Americans	Ownbey and Horridge	1997	Acculturation levels and shopping orientations
9	USA	Asian Americans (Chinese, Japanese and Korean)	Kang and Kim	1998	Investigating whether ethnicity and acculturation influenced consumers' purchase decision making for social clothes
10	USA	Various acculturating groups	Seitz	1998	Acculturation and direct purchasing behaviour among ethnic groups in the US.
11	USA	Hispanics	Maldonado and Tansuhaj	1998	Relationship between self esteem and Latino consumer acculturation
12	USA	Immigrant students with English as second language	Maldonado and Tansuhaj	1999	Role adjustment and symbolic consumption during the transition phase of consumer acculturation
13	UK	British Pakistanis	Jamal and Chapman	2000	Acculturation and inter ethnic consumer perception
14	Australia	Chinese	Quester et al.	2001	Examining whether acculturation affects consumer decision making

15	USA	Hispanics	Maldonado and Tansuhaj	2002	Using Berry's acculturation model to understand consumer acculturation and its influence on brand choice
16	UK	Ethnic minorities, defined as persons not born in Britain, but living in Britain	Omar et al.	2004	Comparing grocery brand preferences of ethnic and non ethnic consumers in UK.
17	USA	Asian Indians	Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer	2005	The level of involvement of Asian-Indians, when purchasing Indian ethnic apparel and contemporary American clothing at different levels of acculturation
18	USA	Jewish	Podoshen	2006	Difference in the use of word of mouth and brand loyalty among American Jews with differing levels of acculturation
19	UK	British Indians	Sekhon	2007	The role of ethnicity and intergenerational influences on the consumption patterns of Asian Indians living in the UK.

It is important to explain a couple of terms before going further. The term ‘level of acculturation’ is used to refer to studies where an acculturating consumer is placed on a continuum between an ‘unacculturated extreme’ and an ‘acculturated extreme’ (Hair Jr and Anderson, 1972). This determines their degree of immersion in the alternate culture; implying an inverse relationship between their identification with the ethnic and host cultures. The term ‘outcomes of acculturation’ is used to refer to categories of acculturation where the consumer displays different patterns of acculturation based on their levels of immersion in both the host and the ethnic cultures; implying the ethnic and host culture identifications are independent of one another (Mendoza, 1984; Ryder et al., 2000).

Some studies look into how levels of acculturation affect consumer behaviour. Others investigate consumer acculturation by taking into account various outcomes of acculturation and considering their implications for the marketing of products and

services. A further group of studies examines the concept of situational ethnicity and the way in which this affects the process of consumption.

Some researchers have looked into the link between the levels of acculturation and consumption. Ownbey and Horridge's (1997) study of the acculturation levels and shopping orientations among Asian American consumers showed significant differences in two shopping orientations: sex roles and opinion leadership, between high and low acculturation groups. More acculturated consumers showed lower propensity to adopt gender-based stereotypes in shopping roles and were less inclined to provide shopping advice and suggestions to others (Ownbey and Horridge, 1997). Another study by Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) in the US indicated that Asian-Indians with low levels of acculturation show higher levels of involvement when purchasing Indian ethnic apparel. Although moderately acculturated individuals were initially less involved in Indian ethnic apparel, they become increasingly involved with such products as they become more acculturated to the host culture.

Lee (1993), in a study investigating the affect of acculturation on the advertising communication strategies of Taiwanese American consumers, concluded that as Taiwanese consumers become more acculturated, they tend to buy well-known brand names. In another study, Kara and Kara (1996) found that the level of acculturation could be used as a segmentation variable for both low and high involvement products. They studied this from both the Hispanic and the American perspectives. They concluded that ethnic populations with higher levels of acculturation are similar to the host population in terms of the value placed on the product attributes of toothpaste, such as certification and well-known brand names

in the host country. Ethnic populations with low levels of acculturation placed highest value on well-known brand names in home countries now available in the host country. Both the ethnic population, irrespective of their level of acculturation, and the host population, placed a high value on the cavity fighting property of the toothpaste (Kara and Kara, 1996).

A study by Shim and Chen (1996), involving Chinese Americans and focusing on acculturation characteristics and shopping orientations, yielded two acculturation outcomes. These were: minimalist, less acculturated shoppers, who had less active shopping styles and went to conveniently located stores; and actively involved, more acculturated shoppers, with shopping interests, media liking and cultural lifestyles similar to that of Americans.

Some researchers have found that studies based on the level of acculturation are able to successfully differentiate between high and low acculturating individuals and their consumption behaviour. However, they seem to explain very little when it comes to the consumption behaviour of individuals falling between the two extremes (Mavreas et al., 1989; Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980).

Gupta's (1975) study of acculturation and the food habits of Asian Indian immigrants in the US supports the notion of acculturation outcomes. The immigrants fall into three stages based on their acculturation level: the traditional stage, those who are least acculturated and whose food habits are predominantly Indian; the transitional stage, individuals who are moderately acculturated with a mix of Indian and American food habits; and westernized individuals who are highly acculturated

with American food habits. Similarly, Sodowsky and Carey (1988) in their study of Asian Indian immigrants in the US found three groups: the largest group (65%) referred to themselves as Asian Indians, holding on to their Indian culture and behaviour, for example wearing Indian style clothing when at home, eating Indian food away from home and thinking mostly in an Indian language; the second group (21%) considered themselves Asian American, appearing to be more bicultural; and the third group (7%) regarded themselves as being mostly or very American, exhibiting American behaviour, for example wearing American style of dress when at home, eating American food away from home and thinking and reading mostly or only in English.

Berry's (1980) model was found to be useful in segmenting the Latino market in the US into three acculturation categories that exhibit distinct brand choice patterns. Individuals in the assimilation category chose host country brands more often and ethnic brands less often. Those in the integration category chose host and ethnic brands in similar proportions. Individuals in the separation category chose ethnic brands more often than host brands (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

The type of market offerings that are accepted by Hispanic immigrants in the US, with the four acculturation outcomes of assimilation, maintenance, resistance and segregation, have been shown to differ from each other. Assimilated immigrants adopt low-cost, high visibility items devoid of any language barrier, like clothing. Immigrants falling in the 'maintenance' category adopt some offerings that allow them to maintain their cultural and family ties, such as the food that they prepare and eat, the media they consume and the leisure activities they pursue. The other

offerings that they adopt are associated with the host culture, such as telephones, automobiles and financial services. Members of the 'resistance' category exhibit complex buying behaviour because of their dislike for aspects of both host and ethnic cultures. Segregated individuals are situated away from the host culture and are completely immersed in their ethnic culture, as evidenced by their consumption (Penaloza, 1994). For example, they eat Spanish food and consume Spanish media.

Overall, studies that are based on acculturation outcomes are not only able to successfully differentiate between high and low acculturating individuals but also to explain the patterns of acculturation between these two extremes. This makes it possible to use these acculturation outcomes to study consumer behaviour for different acculturated groups (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mendoza, 1984).

Some authors have introduced the term 'hybrid identity' to refer to the way in which identity formation expresses minority and dominant cultures. Consumer identity describes the outcome of the migrants' encounters with the host culture, producing a diverse range of individuated identities which are a combination of minority and dominant cultures. These individuated identities, called 'hybrid identities', are akin to Berry's 'integrated' category (Ustuner and Holt, 2007). A study of Haitian Americans (Oswald, 1999) focused on identity formation and described how the immigrants unconsciously, depending on the situation, alternated between the tastes of the Haitian elite and the American middle class. Another study involving identity formation involved Greenlanders in Denmark (Askegaard et al., 2005). The authors describe hybrid identity formation and talk about the idea of a hyperculture wherein migrants draw upon the Greenland culture commodified in the dominant culture.

Ustuner and Holt (2007) pursued a similar postmodern study on poor migrant Turkish women, identifying three modes of acculturation which are similar to separation in the way in which they shut out the dominant ideology; assimilation, collectively pursuing the dominant ideology; and marginalisation, giving up on both. Overall, this suggests that although the authors have looked at acculturation from the perspective of situational ethnicity and identity formation, the outcomes of acculturation are still similar to those seen in Berry's (1980) framework.

O'Guinn and Faber (1985) suggest that individuals play different roles in their daily lives and that acculturation is role specific. Similar views are expressed by Stayman and Deshpande (1989, p. 361) who note that the level of consumer acculturation of Chinese and Mexicans in America is dependent upon the situation. They comment that "ethnicity is not just who one is, but how one feels in and about a particular situation". Depending on the situation, consumers' choice behaviour will also vary. This will be based on the personal meanings that are important to an individual in that situation (Stayman and Deshpande, 1989; Zmud and Arce, 1992). Similarly, Navas et al. (2007) argue that assimilation strategies are adopted in peripheral domains like politics, work and economics; and that separation strategies are adopted in core domains like social, family, religious and ways of thinking. In other words, the acculturation category can be dependent on the context in which the individuals are operating. Thus ethnic minority consumers might be segregated at one moment of their lives and assimilated at other points in time, depending upon how they experience the world around them at any given time (Jamal and Chapman, 2000).

When adjusting to a different culture, consumers encounter many new roles with differing levels of 'cultural identifications' and 'participation in the host cultural behaviours', and this can sway back and forth between ethnic and host cultures (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). During this process, these 'cultural identifications', referred to as attitudinal dimensions of acculturation, and the 'participation in the host cultural behaviour', referred to as the behavioural components of acculturation, may change at different speeds (Hui et al., 1992). For example, individuals may participate extensively in the host cultural behaviour, while still maintaining a strong ethnic cultural identification. Consumers, however, will eventually settle into lifestyles that are more stable, with dimensions of attitude and behaviour that are relatively stable too. When consumers reach this stage, their category of acculturation will be based on whether the host or ethnic culture has a stronger influence on their attitudinal and behavioural components (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). Movement of individuals across these stable (although not permanent) categories of acculturation occurs either over longer periods of time (Hutnik and Barrett, 2003), or as a result of a change in their circumstances. For example, an individual's movement across categories of acculturation could be accelerated as a result of close friendship or partnership with a person from the host culture. Lastly, within a particular ethnic subgroup, as some consumers move from one category of acculturation to another, yet others might move into the category vacated by those moving on. This is evident from the two studies carried out by Hutnik and Barrett (2003) across twenty years-1983 and 2003, on British Asian adolescents in Birmingham, UK. In both these studies, the adolescents fell into the same four categories of acculturation. This suggests that the four categories of

acculturation continue to exist even though individuals who make up these categories may vary over a period of time.

Many of the consumer acculturation studies have been carried out in the US, particularly around the acculturation of Hispanics into American society. In the UK, the number of consumer acculturation studies has been much more limited. Sekhon (2007) attempted to bring acculturation, generation and consumption theory together by exploring the roles of ethnicity and intergenerational impact on the consumer decision making and brand choice of Indians living in the UK. The study, which focused primarily on the process of consumer decision making with less emphasis on the outcomes in terms of brand choice, has a number of shortcomings. In particular, the study does not look at the first generation immigrants who are in the majority (Census 2001), instead focusing more on ten second generation immigrants. Furthermore, the study fails to consider the role of key variables like age, gender and education amongst others, without which any acculturation study can be considered incomplete (Berry, 1997). Similarly, Lindridge et al. (2004) focused on the process of consumer decision making among South Asian women in Britain, finding that these women exhibited multiple identities in different situations through their consumption. These authors proposed an extra mode of acculturation which they called 'accommodative'. This mode is bicultural in nature, indicating that the ethnic minority individuals live happily negotiating between the two cultures thereby using different consumption patterns based on their imagined multiple worlds. These findings contrasted with an earlier study on multiple identities by Bhatia (2002), who said that such a state would cause cultural dissonance. However, it is important to note that, similar to the study by Sekhon

(2007), the participants of the study by Lindridge et al. (2004) were also limited to a small group of young second generation British Asian women studying at university.

Another UK study on consumer acculturation was carried out by Omar et al. (2004), who compared the grocery brand preferences of ethnic and non-ethnic consumers. The study defines ethnic consumers as all those individuals who were not born in Britain, but are living here. It has thus ended up joining forty nationalities under the heading of 'ethnic consumers'. Clearly such an approach has limitations, since people from different cultures do not necessarily acculturate in the same way and also tend to follow different purchase processes (Berry et al., 1987; Quester et al., 2001; Seitz, 1998). Also, this study adopted a unidimensional acculturation model. This model has limitations because of the assumption that assimilation is the only mode of acculturation. Furthermore, Omar et al. (2004) have not presented any results relating to the influence of acculturation on consumer behaviour and brand choice.

Some authors have studied consumption amongst British Indians on the basis of cultural values (Lindridge, 2001) and perceptions towards brands (Pankhania et al., 2007). Lindridge (2001) concluded that British Indians, in his study on brown good purchase, could be categorised as 'integrated' and they drew upon aspects of both collectivistic Asian Indian values and individualistic British White values. Pankhania et al. (2007), in their study using UK automobile brands, found that the difference in cultural values of British Indians and British Whites translated into different levels of importance being placed on product attributes, when evaluating brands and also into different perceptions for the same set of brands. With the use of second generation undergraduate students in their research, Pankhania et al. (2007)

suppose that their sample is more likely to be from the 'integrated' category and they have not used any measurements to corroborate this. Lindridge (2001) has proposed that future research should consider the other different acculturation categories. Pankhania et al. (2007) have emphasised the need to examine the effect of culture on consumer behaviour using fast moving consumer goods to see whether the type of product used has a bearing on such an effect.

To sum up, this section has reviewed a range of consumer acculturation studies, revealing two ways in which the phenomenon has been studied: (1) based on the results of acculturation, studied on the basis of levels of acculturation or acculturation outcomes; and (2) focusing on the process of acculturation, studied either as situational ethnicity or the formation of hybrid identity. Most of these acculturation studies have been carried out in the US or Canada, with a dearth of UK-based research. Having reviewed acculturation, the next section will examine consumer behaviour in the context of acculturation and show how this behaviour finds expression through brand preference.

2.3 Consumer behaviour in the context of acculturation

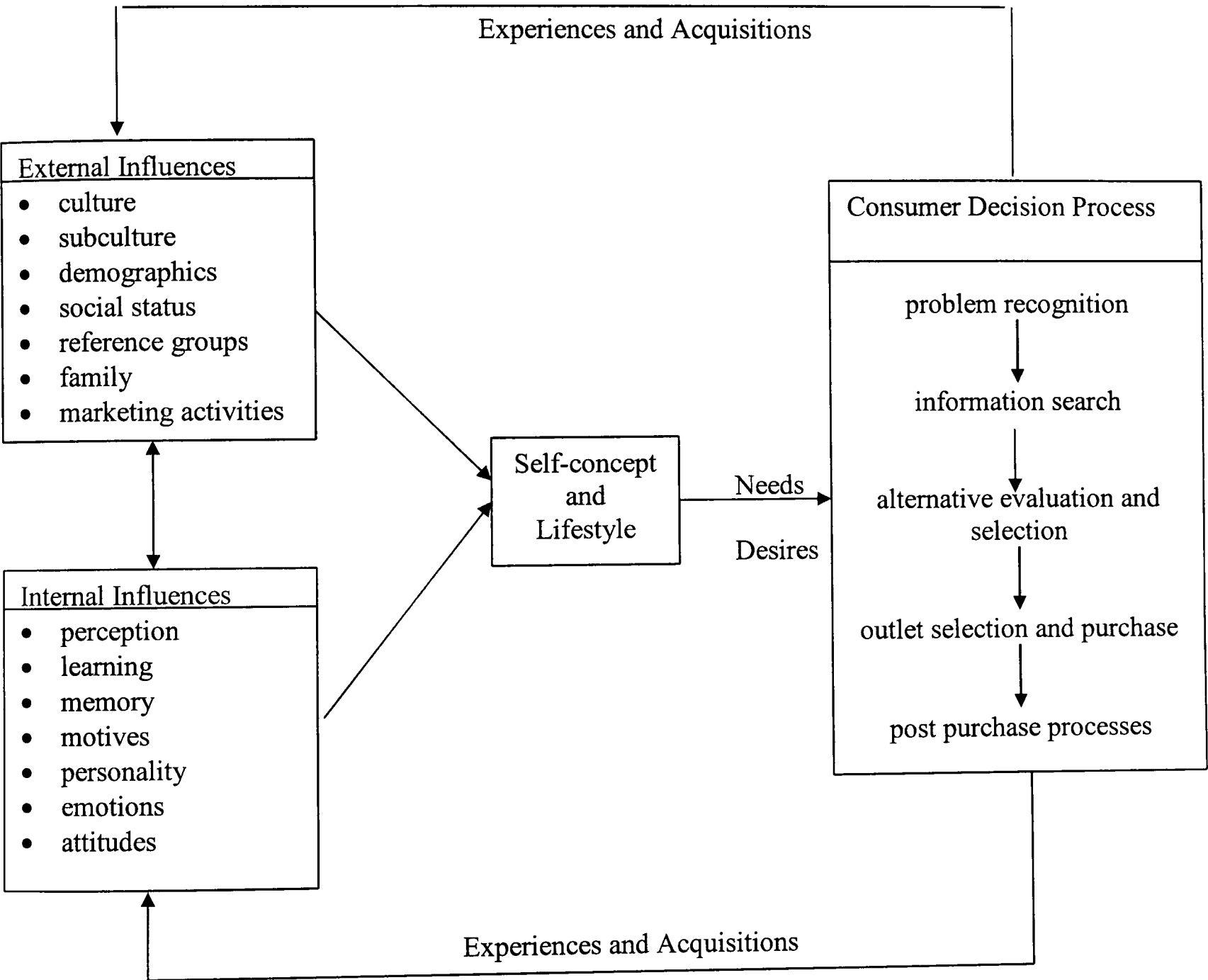
Consumer behaviour, which is a large and multidisciplinary field, is defined by the American Marketing Association (AMA) as "the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour and the environment by which human beings conduct aspects of their lives" (Sekhon, 2007, p. 161). The study of consumer behaviour helps to gain knowledge into consumption related decisions. It helps us to understand what people buy, why they buy, how they buy, where they buy and what influences their purchasing decisions. Consumer behaviour therefore can be considered to be a subset of the larger field of human behaviour (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1992).

Research into consumer behaviour has gained in importance during the last forty years (Engel et al., 1993). The way in which consumer behaviour has been studied has resulted in the development of different consumer behaviour models. Engel et al. (1995, p. 143) state that “a model is nothing more than a replica of the phenomena it is designed to present. It specifies the building blocks (variables) and the ways in which they are interrelated.” Du Plessis et al. (1991) added that models can also be described as including components of behavioural processes. The four most acclaimed multi-variable models in consumer behaviour are those of: Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969), Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1968) and Hawkins-Best-Coney (2004). The Nicosia model restricts itself to the cognitive process of consumer decision making. Foxall et al. (1998) have noted that consumer researchers often fail to include the influence of external factors on the consumer choice process and have instead concentrated mainly on the cognitive states and processes. In the Howard and Sheth (1969) model, the psychological variables and the environmental variables are integrated, which makes it difficult to isolate these components if their strength and significance have to be established. The Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1968) model assumes a hierarchy of effects in which cognitive activity is followed by emotional evaluation in the formation of an attitude, which eventually culminates in behaviour (Elliott, 1998).

The model proposed by Hawkins-Best-Coney (2004) is shown in Figure 2.4. This model is presented here because it helps to understand consumer behaviour in the context of acculturation. In this model, a consumer’s self-concept and lifestyle are at the centre. The external and internal influences impinge on the consumer, producing and affecting needs and desires. As the needs are satisfied through alternative

evaluation and selection, the consumer gains experience. The experiences gained by the consumer, feed back as inputs to influence future purchase decisions.

Figure 2.4 A model of consumer behaviour



Source: Hawkins, D. I., Best, R. J. and Coney, K. A. (2004), p. 27.

Some of the internal influences that shape self-concept and lifestyle include perception, learning, attitudes and personality. The external influences that bear upon self-concept and lifestyle include marketing activities, culture, reference groups, family and demographics. It is this combination of internal and external

influences shaping self-concept and lifestyle that makes this model relevant. Given the scope of the current study, elements of external influences and their effect on the purchase decision process by shaping self-concept and lifestyle are of specific interest. Some of the variables that make up the external influences are also those that undergo change when a consumer is going through the acculturation process.

2.3.1 External influences: Culture and reference groups

Consumer behaviour is shaped in part by external influences. As stated earlier, some of the variables that make up external influences undergo a change when a consumer is going through the acculturation process. This section looks specifically at culture and reference groups, two of the key external variables, their effect on consumer behaviour through the influence they have on self-concept and lifestyle, and how these aspects undergo change during the acculturation process.

Hofstede (1984, p. 21) views culture as “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group to another”. Through the influence they have on consumer values, cultural differences have an impact on consumer behaviour, which in turn affects individual choice criteria and consumption motivation (Kara and Kara, 1996). Several researchers have concluded that culture influences the development and demonstration of an individual’s behaviour (Berry et al., 1992) and therefore is an important influencer of consumer behaviour (Engel et al., 1973; Hair Jr and Anderson, 1972; Henry, 1976; Kotler, 1972). The process of selectivity, otherwise known as evaluative behaviour, is influenced by the distinctive values of each culture and their configuration (Hair Jr and Anderson, 1972).

McCracken (1986, p. 73) explains that “goods are an opportunity to make culture material and may be seen as an opportunity to express the categorical scheme established by a culture”. Consumer goods are made up of more than their functionality or price because they are a vehicle for cultural meaning (Douglas and Isherwood, 1978; Sahlins, 1976). Material goods are thus important to consumers, due to their ability to carry and communicate cultural meaning (Belk, 1984; Foxall and Goldsmith, 1994).

People from one culture have the potential to incorporate different aspects of another culture they may come into contact with. The manifestation of cultures in terms of how people live their lives are by no means static (Lee, 1993). The decisions that immigrant groups make are influenced by the cultural differences, and by the values and norms that predominate, in each immigrant group (Palumbo and Teich, 2004). Cognitive and behavioural characteristics such as language, cultural customs and practices, as well as values, ideologies, beliefs and attitudes, appear to be important components of acculturation (Cueller et al., 1980). A body of evidence links the culture of an individual to their consumer behaviour. Lee’s (1993) study of Taiwanese consumers in the US established and communicated this through the numerous brands that individuals consume. As McCracken (1986, p. 73) explains, “Objects are created according to a culture’s blueprint and to this extent objects render the categories of this blueprint material and substantial. Thus objects contribute to the construction of the culturally constituted world precisely because they are vital, tangible records of cultural meaning that is otherwise intangible”.

The notion that consumer behaviour reflects acculturation is affirmed by Quester et al. (2001, p. 9), who state that “acculturation is related to consumer behaviour; how much an individual identifies with a given ethnic group may largely determine the individual’s commitment to cultural norms and the degree of influence exerted by a particular culture.” Similarly, Hair Jr and Anderson’s (1972) study of the relationship between culture, acculturation and consumer behaviour of US-based foreign students of different nationalities concluded that cultural heritage is the most important variable influencing the extent of consumer acculturation. Acculturation involves the modification of the person’s value orientations, language usage, habits and customs, (Szapocznik et al., 1978). At a fundamental level, it involves alterations in the individual's sense of self which happens due to changes in their behaviours, attitudes, values and sense of cultural identity (Ryder et al., 2000). Aspects of both the subjective (non-material aspects such as norms, roles, beliefs and values) and objective (material aspects of culture such as tools, foods and material products) culture of another group can be adopted by acculturating individuals (Triandis, 1972; Triandis et al., 1982).

The discussion so far suggests that culture has an important influence on consumer behaviour and thereby on the purchase of goods and brands. It is also clear that culture has a fundamental role to play in the consumer acculturation process.

Another important influence on consumer behaviour is the ‘reference groups’ to which individuals relate. “A reference group is any person or group that serves as a point of comparison (or reference) for an individual in the formation of either general or specific values, attitudes, or behaviour” (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1992; p.

315). Reference groups that individuals aspire to belong to, expose them to behaviour and lifestyles, affect their self-concept development, contribute to the formation of their values and attitudes, and influence their purchase behaviour (Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Childers and Rao, 1992).

Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) suggest that self-concept is shaped by the interaction process between the individual and others. Escalas and Bettman (2003, p. 341) have defined reference groups as “social groups that are important to a consumer and against which he or she compares himself or herself”. Research on reference groups has shown a congruency between group membership and the use of particular brands, in that the reference group with which individuals associate influences them to use the brands that this reference group is perceived to use (Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Bearden et al., 1989; Childers and Rao, 1992).

When consumers are adjusting to a different culture, they embrace many new roles with differing levels of cultural identifications and participation in the host cultural behaviours (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). In order to adapt to these new circumstances, consumers tend to modify their consumption lifestyles, which include their preferences for particular brands. Therefore, lifestyle changes influence aspects of consumer behaviour (Mathur et al., 2003).

To summarise, ‘culture’ and ‘reference groups’ are external influences that bear upon self-concept and lifestyle, which in turn affect consumer behaviour and brand preference. When a consumer undergoes acculturation, changes occur in both ‘culture’ and ‘reference groups’ leading to a change in consumer behaviour. Another important element of external influence on consumer behaviour is ‘demographics’.

This will be considered in Section 2.4 of this chapter, after looking at how consumer behaviour is expressed through brand preference.

2.3.2 Brand preference

The previous section looked at the concept of consumer behaviour, some of the variables that influence it and how these variables are affected by and undergo change during the process of acculturation. Given that this changing behaviour may be expressed through brand preferences, the next section explores in more detail the concept of brand preference and its fit with the broader domain of consumer behaviour.

2.3.2.1 Brands, brand equity and brand image

The AMA define a brand as “a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competition” (Keller, 2008; p. 2). While a product may be defined as something that provides a functional benefit, a brand is a name, symbol, design, and or mark that increases the value of a product much beyond its functional worth (Farquhar, 1989).

Historically, branding enabled craftsmen to identify their wares, so that their customers could easily recognise them. Marks have been found on porcelain from China, on pottery from Greece and Rome and on goods from India dating back to about 1300 BC (Keller, 2007). Riezebos (2003) tracked branding as far back as the Middle Ages (476–1492) when three types of signs appeared: a craftsman sign, equivalent to today’s brand name; a guild mark, equivalent to today’s quality certification; and a city sign, which was the place of manufacture. Brands for mass-

produced items, as understood today, emerged in Western countries during the Industrial Revolution (1830–1870).

Murphy's (1987, p. 1-2) definition extends beyond the tangible aspects of a brand, stating that "modern, sophisticated branding is now concerned with a brand's 'gestalt', with assembling together and maintaining a mix of values, both tangible and intangible, which are relevant to consumers and which meaningfully and appropriately distinguish one supplier's brand from that of another".

As brands encompass far more than the tangible aspects of product or service they represent, they are accompanied by equity. Brand names add value and the added value which the brand name confers on to the product or service is called brand equity (Aaker, 1991). Brand equity is a set of assets and liabilities attached to a brand. Consumer-based brand equity has been described as including everything that exists in the minds of the customers with respect to a brand (Keller and Lehmann, 2003). Biel (1992) proposes that researchers should focus more on the perceptual component of brand equity, i.e. the brand image, and how this brand image relates to consumer preference via brand equity. The brand image uncovers what exists in the hearts and minds of the consumer that essentially influences the brand equity. Kotler (1988, p. 197) defines brand image as "a set of beliefs held about a particular brand."

The concepts of brand equity and brand image are important in understanding brand preference. There is mention in literature of the fact that, when consumers' self-image is close to the brand image, this leads to brand preference. The next section reviews this literature.

2.3.2.2 Self-image and brand preference

In addition to their functional role, brands have symbolic importance to consumers, which may be expressed through the consumption of particular brands (Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Levy, 1959). The relationship between consumers' self-image and the brands' perceived image is important (Zinkam and Hong, 1991). Consumers prefer brands that have images that are compatible with their perceptions of themselves (Belk et al., 1982; Ericksen, 1996; Solomon, 1983; Zinkham and Hong, 1991). The more comparable the individual's self-image is to the brand image, the greater will be their positive assessment of that brand (Graeff, 1996). Thus consumers buy brands which are perceived to be similar to their own self-concept (Graeff, 1996). This leads to the so-called self-image product-image congruence (Sirgy, 1982; Sirgy et al., 1991; Sirgy et al., 1997). More importantly, consumers use products to express their self-concepts to themselves (Sirgy, 1982; Wallendorf and Arnould, 1988).

2.3.2.3 Consumer behaviour and brand preference

Brand preference is a necessary antecedent to brand choice, which is the final stage of the consumer purchase process occurring before the post purchase evaluation (Erdem et al., 1999). Two types of information are used by consumers when evaluating potential alternatives: (1) a list of brands to choose from, called the evoked set; and (2) the salient criteria that they will use to evaluate each brand. The decision making process can be simplified for consumers if they have a list of possible brands to choose from. The salient criteria that consumers use to evaluate a brand in a new culture depend on their new values and lifestyles. This is based on

the level of importance attached to brand attributes and brand names and the influence of others on the purchase decision (Bristow and Asquith, 1999).

Mathur et al. (2003, p. 129) express that “most consumers change their preferences for brands several times in their lifetime; however, the question as to what makes them change their preferences has intrigued marketers and consumer research for decades”. Consumer characteristics are important determinants of brand preference changes (Van Trijp et al., 1996). Also, in the context of consumer behaviour, consumers prefer brands which they perceive to be the kind of brands that someone similar to themselves would consume (Ross, 1971). Brand preference is thus the expression of consumer behaviour that, when coupled with purchase intention, ultimately results in brand choice (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995).

2.4 Demographic Factors

In the previous section, culture and reference groups have been considered as external influences on consumer behaviour; and the manner in which such variables undergo change during the process of acculturation has been examined. This section explores the role which demographic factors play in relation to consumer behaviour of acculturating groups.

As seen in the Hawkins-Best-Coney model (2004) in Figure 2.4, demographic factors can be regarded as external influences on consumer behaviour. Demographic factors have also been described in the literature as being associated with acculturation (Berry, 1997; Padilla, 1980; Ward, 2001). Demographic factors such as age, gender, religion, length of stay in a host country, nationality, generational status, job, income and education have all been found to have some kind of

relationship with acculturation (Jun et al., 1993; Lee and Tse, 1994; Navas et al., 2007; Penaloza, 1989; Podoshen, 2006; Sadowsky et al., 1991). These relationships are now explored in more detail.

2.4.1 Influence of demographic factors on consumer behaviour

Demographic factors such as age, gender, occupation, income, religion, nationality and education (Armstrong and Kotler, 2007; Dibb et al., 2006; Hawkins et al., 2004) impact upon the consumer decision making process and shape behaviour during its different stages. The way in which products and services are used is also affected by demographic factors (Dibb et al., 2006).

Dramatic differences in consumption behaviours are seen across different segments of society, based on demographic factors like age, sex, race and religion (Sheth, 1977). The product and service needs of consumers often vary according to the age group they belong to (Solomon et al., 2009). A greater market is found amongst younger consumers for products like fast food, cosmetics, computers and games; while there is a bigger market amongst older consumers for products like financial services, health and fitness, and home remodelling; indicating the effect that age has on consumer behaviour (Armstrong and Kotler, 2007). The age of the consumer also has a bearing on the nature of the information search during the decision making process. For example, younger consumers tend to search more extensively than older consumers who may be more experienced in the category of product or service being purchased (Dibb et al., 2006). Fundamental differences also exist in products consumed by members of different genders. Lipstick, for example, is primarily consumed by women (Sheth, 1977). Education, occupation and income have traditionally been combined in descriptions of social class which reflects a person's

values, attitudes, tastes and lifestyles. These in turn influence consumer behaviour by affecting the product and brand choices that consumers make (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1992). At times, affiliation to a particular religion influences the purchase decisions of its members (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1992). For example, a study of three different religious groups, namely: Catholics, Protestants and Jews by Hirschman (1983) found that Catholics were less likely than Protestants to consider price as an important decision factor for family pet selection, and were more likely than Jews to reckon 'residence conditions' as being an important condition for selecting a place of residence. Perceptions of products and services may also be different for members of different religious groups, which in turn can affect their purchase behaviour (Engel, 1976). In comparison with Protestants and Jews, Catholics have been shown to be less oriented towards material possessions (Hirschman, 1983). While investigating the shopping behaviour of Catholics, Hindus and Muslims in Mauritius, Essoo (2001) found that Catholic shoppers attached more importance to bargains and people's opinions before purchasing products than did either Hindu or Muslim shoppers.

2.4.2 Relationship of demographic factors with acculturation

Demographic factors, as well as reflecting consumer characteristics, also play a role in determining their lifestyles. Lifestyles in turn have a bearing on the acculturation patterns of consumers (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). Influential factors include age, gender, income, education and religion.

In the context of acculturating individuals, age has an important relationship with acculturation, which in turn has a bearing on their behaviour as consumers. In their study of Hispanic immigrants to the US, Szapocznik et al. (1978) found the rate of

acculturation to be a function of an individual's age, suggesting that younger members of the family acculturated more rapidly than older ones. Berry (1997) indicates that when acculturation starts early in an individual's life, the process is much smoother than if it begins later on. He suggested that this is because a large part of the life lived in the ethnic cultural setting can not be easily ignored by an individual who is trying to live in a new cultural setting. O'Guinn and Meyer's (1983) study of Hispanic consumers in the US, suggested that older consumers, who also happen to be less educated, are more traditional, closer to their ethnic heritage and more likely to be consumers of Spanish language television. Quester and Chong's (2001) research involving Australian Chinese consumers arrived at a similar conclusion. Penaloza (1994), in her study of Mexican immigrants in the US, expressed the view that older consumers have greater familiarity with their ethnic culture, and therefore have difficulties in adapting to the US culture. In comparison, she found that younger consumers acculturated more readily, with acculturation levels impacting upon purchase behaviours. For example, less acculturated immigrants consume more Spanish food and media.

Some researchers have found that gender has a role to play in acculturation (Baldassini and Flaherty, 1982; Ghaffarian, 1987; Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980; Szapocznik et al., 1978), with males generally quicker to acculturate than females. Szapocznik et al. (1978) also found the rapid acculturation of males as compared with females to be independent of the age of respondents.

On the contrary, Khairullah and Khairullah's (1999) study of Asian Indian immigrants in the US found no significant difference between males and females with respect to acculturation levels. Padilla (1980) classified Mexican Americans

into five acculturation category types and found that gender did not affect their acculturation category type, while Marin et al.'s (1987) study of Hispanics in the US also found no significant differences in acculturation levels between genders.

A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between an ethnic group's income level and their degree of acculturation. In general, more acculturated individuals have been found to have higher levels of income than those who are less acculturated (Goldlust and Richmond, 1974; Park, 1928). Quester and Chong's (2001) study of Australian Chinese consumers found higher income levels to be associated with higher levels of acculturation, while Maldonado and Tansuhaj's (2002) research involving US Latinos found that consumers in the separation category had lower household incomes than those in the integration or assimilation categories. Also, consumers in the separation category (less acculturated) segment chose more ethnic brands than host brands. Padilla's (1980) study of Mexican Americans also suggested a positive relationship between acculturation and income levels. However, he noted that income levels are often composed of a spouse's income for women, or pertain to the income level of the head of the household only. Therefore although acculturation level may seem to be directly related to the individual, the income being recorded may not be directly attributable to that individual. However, not all researchers find income to significantly influence acculturation levels. No significant association was found between the incomes of US-based Asian Indian consumers and their levels of acculturation (Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005); with Khairullah and Khairullah's (1999) study of Asian-Indians in the US also finding no influence of income on the levels of acculturation.

Padilla (1980) established that educational level was positively correlated with acculturation. Less acculturated individuals were found among lower educational groups and more acculturated individuals exhibited higher educational levels. Other researchers have also found more acculturated individuals to have higher levels of education (Hoyer and Deshpande, 1982; Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Olmedo and Padilla, 1978). Based on their study of Latino consumers in the US, Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) found that individuals in the separation category of acculturation had lower levels of education compared to those in the integration and assimilation categories, and also chose more ethnic brands than host brands.

Unlike the above investigations, Rajgopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) found no significant relationship between education and acculturation. They ascribed this result to the fact that many of their respondents (40 percent) did not attend school in the US and a lower percentage of the respondents (43 percent) held professional jobs. Thus factors other than education may have influenced these respondents' levels of acculturation.

Another demographic factor that can be associated with acculturation is the religion of the acculturating consumer. Researchers have looked at religion from two perspectives, namely religious affiliation and religiosity. Religious affiliation is considered to be the adherence of individuals to a particular religious group (Hirschman, 1983). Religiosity is defined as the degree of commitment in the specific religious values held and practised by individuals (Delener, 1990). Studies on acculturation have focused on religious affiliation. There is very little mention of religion and its relationship with acculturation in literature. Although Khairullah and Khairullah (1999) found a significant association between religion and acculturation,

they did not elaborate on the nature of the association. This was probably because 82 percent of their sample were Hindus and the rest were pooled together as 'other'. Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) found religion to have a significant influence on the level of acculturation, with respondents from the Christian faith being more acculturated than Hindu subjects. This resulted in Hindus being more involved in the selection and purchase of Indian ethnic clothing. Gupta (1975) however, suggests that religious differences do not matter once Asian Americans have settled in the US, finding respondents to be less concerned about their religious affiliation and more united by the fact they all have a common country of origin in India.

A number of other demographic factors are of specific interest when studying consumers in the context of acculturation. These are: length of stay in the host country; generational difference; contact with the host culture through job status and profession; and nationality or residency. Kara and Kara's (1996) study of Hispanic consumers in the US found the degree of exposure to a culture to be positively correlated with acculturation level. They concluded that ethnic populations with higher levels of acculturation are similar to the host population in terms of the value placed on particular product attributes of, for example toothpaste, such as certification and well-known brand names in the host country. Quester and Chong (2001) concur, finding that Chinese immigrants coming to Australia as children are more rapidly acculturated than older immigrants because they are exposed to the host culture for a longer period of time. Similarly, Jun et al. (1993) suggest that a reluctance to accept a new culture and a greater tendency to cling on to the home culture may be related to intensity of exposure to the home culture before the individual moved.

Nguyen and Williams (1989) noticed a decrease in the endorsement of traditional values amongst Vietnamese adolescents as a function of their length of stay in the US. Similarly, Rosenthal et al. (1996) suggested that the relative sustenance of family norms and home country values of immigrant groups was related to their length of residence in the dominant society. In their study of Asian families in Canada, Kwak and Berry (2001) found that although Asian families were more tightly knit than Anglo-Celtic families, the longer these immigrants lived in Canada, the weaker the unity within a family became. Asian families who had lived longer in Canada also showed a stronger preference for integration.

Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) found that for foreign born Latinos, those in the integration category had lived for an average of 34 years in the US, as against 19 years for those in the separation category. This implies that those who have lived longer in the US fall into the integrated category in comparison with those who are in the separated category. Furthermore, Szapocznik et al. (1978) found that individual acculturation progresses as a function of the length of time that someone is exposed to the host culture. Lee and Tse (1994) concluded in their study that immigrants who stay more than seven years in Canada are more acculturated than those who stay for a shorter time.

However, other studies by Penaloza (1994); and by Shim and Chen (1996) contradict these findings and do not show a significant relationship between length of stay and acculturation. Penaloza (1994), in her study of Mexican Americans, observed that although some of those who lived longer in the US had less difficulty in acculturating, the length of stay did not necessarily determine the extent of acculturation. Similarly, Shim and Chen's (1996) study of Chinese in the US

showed that, regardless of the person's length of residence, their desire to stay in the US had a greater bearing on their motivation to become acculturated. Mehta and Belk (1991) also did not find a linear relationship between length of stay and degree of acculturation.

Generational differences in acculturation have been discussed by various authors in the literature. Kurian's (1986) study of Indian families in Canada suggested that immigrant parents were less prepared than their children to give up their culture, because they considered it to be central to their cultural identity. Meanwhile, their children, especially when born in the host country, tended to adapt more readily, causing a generation gap between the parents and their children. Similarly, Nguyen and Williams (1989) found that Vietnamese parents strongly supported traditional family values irrespective of their length of time in the US, while adolescents generally rejected their traditional family values, a generation gap that was more prominent amongst Vietnamese than in White families. Their conclusions suggest differential acculturation patterns among parents and adolescent children. Similar observations were made by Matsuoka (1990) in his study of Vietnamese in America, who proposed that conflict between parents and adolescents is greater among immigrant than non-immigrant families. They further suggested that acculturation differences may be a cause for this conflict, due to the fact that adolescents are less embedded in traditional values than the older generation. Consequently, they were more likely than their parents to leave behind traditional behaviour and embrace those behaviours that are perceived to be relevant to the host culture.

Kwak and Berry (2001), who studied generational differences in acculturation among Korean families in Canada, concur with these findings. Their research shows

that sudden and rapid moves of immigrants into the host country led to more protective acculturation attitudes towards the ethnic cultural heritage. Consequently, parents have a greater inclination to retain their original culture, which again could be a source of generational differences. They explain this by saying that parents and children are in dissimilar phases of adaptation, and group specific cultural elements such as language and in-group marriage are important pointers for generational differences.

According to Padilla (1980), second generation children tend to be more acculturated than their first generation parents because they are more in touch with the host cultural institutions and their members. Furthermore, he argued that third generation individuals were even more acculturated because of their socialisation, both at home with second generation parents, and from individuals from the host culture, both of which accentuate features of the host culture.

Sahai (1993) surmises that adolescents are more likely to advocate integration aspects of acculturation than their parents. They explained this in terms of the children's involvement in school, giving them an opportunity for intergroup dealings. This is even though the parents of these children mostly fall into the separation category. In line with this, Maldonado and Tansuhaj's (2002) study of US Latinos found that people in the separation category were more likely to have been born in Mexico (71%) than in the US (24%), and thus were first generation immigrants. They also found that those in the integration and assimilation categories were mainly born in the US, typically being second or later generations of immigrants. Furthermore, Bhopal (1998) states that second and later generations

might develop fresh loyalties and hence become more assimilated than the first generation immigrants.

Mendoza (1989) suggests that with successive generations, certain Mexican customs are given up at a decreasing rate while customs from the Anglo American culture are attained at an increasing rate. Furthermore, certain customs from both Mexican and Anglo American cultures appear to co-exist in a bicultural manner across generations.

In his study of Mexican Americans, Mendoza (1989) suggested that contact with people of the host culture augments the process of cultural change. He hypothesised that there would be a significantly positive correlation between exposure to Anglo Americans in the community, school, church, and work settings; and assimilation, which he referred to as cultural shift. His results confirmed this notion, finding significantly positive correlations with cultural shift. Lee (1989) has similar views, arguing that the main theme of acculturation is the continuous interaction of ethnic people and the host society. He also suggests that many of the ways in which acculturating individuals come into contact with the host society are either directly through schools and the workplace, or symbolically, via the mass media. Furthermore, Jun et al. (1993) suggest that persons are more likely to behave in a manner acceptable to the host culture if they work outside their home, than if they spend most of their time at home. This is because someone who is mostly at home finds comparatively little need to adapt to the host culture. Their results also show that acculturating individuals who have more contact with the host culture adopt this new culture to a greater extent.

Padilla (1980) considers that the degree of acculturation depends on the level of inter-ethnic interaction taking place. Ethnic members who are slow to interact with the host society show much slower rates of acculturation than those who interact more readily. Thus Padilla (1980) concludes that contact between members of dissimilar cultural groups assists the acculturation process.

Researchers have also found links between job status and degree of acculturation. Penaloza (1994) explains this in terms of job status providing opportunities for contact with the host culture, although different jobs varied in the extent to which they helped such contact. Khairullah and Khairullah (1999), in their study of Asian Indians in America, concluded that an individual's occupation was an important determinant of acculturation for that person. This was especially so for people with professional jobs, possibly because these people are more involved in interacting with members of the host culture, leading to a higher degree of acculturation. Moreover, these ethnic professionals engaged more with recreational and other social activities of the host society, which speeded up their acculturation process.

The literature suggests that acculturation can be associated with preference for nationality or residency. In their study of Australian Chinese consumers, Quester and Chong (2001) suggested that with higher degree of acculturation, there was a greater probability that the person had an Australian citizenship. They further added that an individual's eagerness and commitment to settle in Australia was crucial in determining the level of acculturation.

Black and Gregersen (1991) find that individuals start to make adjustments when they first anticipate entering a new culture. Jun et al. (1993) propose that when this anticipation is related to wanting to be a permanent resident of the host country, it

will lead to individuals identifying more with the new culture. Their results also show that cultural identification is influenced by preference for permanent or temporary residence. Those who wanted to go back to their home country maintained stronger ethnic cultural identification than those who preferred to stay permanently in the new culture. This led to the conclusion that acculturating individuals may have different preferences for residency and this affects their mode of acculturation.

Mendoza's (1989) study of Mexican Americans found that people who thought of themselves as temporary immigrants scored high on cultural resistance, which is comparable to Berry's separation category; scored low on cultural shift, which is comparable to Berry's assimilation category; and also scored low on cultural incorporation, which is comparable to Berry's integration category. Those who perceived themselves as permanent host country residents scored highest on cultural shift.

This section has examined the role which demographics; such as age, gender, income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country; generational difference; job status and profession; nationality or residency; play in influencing consumer behaviour and in relationship to acculturation. Despite a sizeable body of work examining demographic factors in relation to acculturation, little attention has been devoted to explaining the role of demographic factors in consumer acculturation.

2.5 Summary

The aim of this chapter has been to review the concept of acculturation and its influence on consumer behaviour. This has involved examining the literature on acculturation, consumer acculturation, consumer behaviour, brand preferences and demographic factors as influencers of consumer behaviour and as having a relationship with acculturation.

Section 2.2 has examined the concept of acculturation, the phases of acculturation, and the two models of individual level acculturation and also presented several acculturation frameworks. The consumer acculturation studies which have been reviewed suggest that acculturation can be studied in a consumption context. This section has elaborated the two ways in which consumer acculturation has been studied: (1) based on the results of acculturation and (2) focused on the process of acculturation.

Section 2.3 has considered consumer behaviour in the context of acculturation, showing how this consumer behaviour finds expression through brand preference. Having looked at acculturation and consumer behaviour, Section 2.4 considers various demographic factors as influencers of consumer behaviour and also as having a relationship with acculturation. The studies reviewed show how demographic factors such as age, gender, income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country; generational difference; job status and profession; and nationality or residency can be associated with acculturation. This chapter on acculturation and consumer behaviour thus provides a theoretical background for Chapter Three, which presents a conceptual framework for the research and introduces the hypotheses.

Chapter Three: Research Framework and Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction

In the literature review presented in Chapter Two, the concept of acculturation and its influence on consumer behaviour were examined. Different research areas including acculturation, consumer acculturation, consumer behaviour and brand preference were reviewed. The role of demographic factors in influencing consumer behaviour and in relationship to acculturation was also considered.

The various studies on consumer acculturation, scrutinised in Chapter Two, showed that acculturation can be studied in a consumption context. It was further shown that consumer behaviour can find expression through brand preference. Using the literature review as a basis, this chapter integrates these research areas and develops the framework for the research. The objectives of the research are to:

- examine whether Berry's (1980) categories of acculturation apply to the British Indian population
- study the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour, as expressed through brand preference
- investigate whether demographic variables are associated with acculturation, and if so, the nature of this relationship; and whether these variables moderate the relationship between acculturation and brand preference.

The structure of the chapter is as follows: Section 3.2 looks at the history of acculturation studies and lays the foundation for the research; Section 3.3 examines the concept of biculturalism and situational ethnicity, and the relevance of these

concepts to the research; Section 3.4 looks specifically at the role of ethnicity in the field of marketing in the UK. Since this research is going to focus on British Indians, this section then looks specifically at British Indians as a group and considers the concept of collectivism as it applies to them. Section 3.5 is concerned with constructing a model for the research. This is achieved by considering different acculturation categories, presenting reasons for choosing Berry's acculturation framework, and explaining how this framework will be adapted in this research. The scale used to measure acculturation is then described and the linkage between acculturation categories and brand preference is also explained. The demographic factors, which are associated with acculturation, are examined both with respect to the nature of their relationship with acculturation, and also as moderators of the relationship between acculturation and brand preference. As the model for the research evolves, relevant hypotheses are also presented. The section concludes by laying out the final model for the research along with a summary of the hypotheses.

3.2 History of acculturation studies and laying the research foundations

Consumer acculturation has been studied using two perspectives; the 'Acculturation perspective' and the 'Socialisation perspective' (Evans et al., 2009, Ogden et al., 2004).

The acculturation perspective is based on interaction between two cultures, focusing on culturally defined consumption skills and behaviours (Penaloza, 1989). Consumer acculturation emphasises the cultural bases of consumption behaviour and involves a cognitive process. For example, when first generation immigrants show lower levels of consumer acculturation, this can be partly explained by the prior development of cognitive structures regarding consumption activities in their

original culture (Padilla, 1980). As these individuals live longer in the host country, or in subsequent generations, the differences in their degree of knowledge about the host culture means they show different degrees of consumer acculturation. As discussed in the previous chapter, self-concept is shaped by the interaction process between the individual and others (Grubb and Grathwohl, 1967). Reference groups affect the development of self-concept and help the individual to interpret the consumption cues of others. Hence consumption is used as a means of belonging to a particular group (Penaloza, 1989). In the consumer acculturation perspective, the focus is on the external influences of consumer behaviour such as culture, subculture and reference groups. As seen in Chapter Two, studies based on the consumer acculturation perspective take into account either the levels or the outcomes of the acculturation process. For example, the relationship between an individual's acculturation category and their consumer behaviour is one area that has been studied.

The socialisation perspective refers to “the processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace” (Ward, 1974; p. 2). While the acculturation perspective takes into account the outcome of the acculturation process and then studies the effect this has on consumer behaviour, the socialisation perspective focuses on the processes by which the consumption skills are learnt, usually within the social context of the acculturating consumers (Penaloza, 1989). Consumer socialisation explains an acculturating individual's consumption experience. Research in this area explores the socialisation process, roles, identity formation, shared and learned behaviour, and perceptions and attitudes of the individuals (Costa, 1995). The learning of consumer skills has been studied through brand loyalty or nostalgic elements

representing powerful memories or intergenerational transfer in families (Olsen, 1995). From the consumer socialisation perspective, the focus is on internal influences upon consumer behaviour, such as learning, perception and attitudes. As seen in Chapter Two, studies using the consumer socialisation perspective delve into the acculturation process itself, and consider how consumers learn the meanings that they attribute to themselves and others, as consumers of goods in the new culture.

Against the backdrop of consumer acculturation and the consumer socialisation perspectives, it is revealing to revisit the consumer behaviour model discussed in Chapter Two (Figure 2.4). In this model, an individual's self-concept and lifestyle are shaped by 'external influences' and 'internal influences'. The 'external influences' such as culture, reference groups, demographics, relate to influences discussed in the consumer acculturation perspective, while the 'internal influences' such as perceptions, learning, attitudes, relate to influences discussed in the consumer socialisation perspective.

It is important to note that although the consumer acculturation and consumer socialisation perspectives move away from one another in their specific foci, they are ultimately threaded together under the larger umbrella of 'culture' (Costa, 1995). Thus, through the processes of consumer socialisation and identity formation, consumer acculturation leads to consumption changes. As was also shown in the last chapter, consumer acculturation studies by authors such as Gupta (1975), Sodowsky and Carey (1988), Kang and Kim (1998), Hui et al. (1992), Kara and Kara (1996), Shim and Chen (1996), Ownbey and Horridge (1997) that take the consumer acculturation perspective have focused on the levels or outcomes of consumer acculturation. Subsequently, consumer acculturation studies by authors such as

Stayman and Deshpande (1989), Penaloza (1994), Oswald (1999), Askegaard et al. (2005), Ustuner and Holt (2007) have been based on the socialisation perspective, situational ethnicity or identity formation. However, it is worth noting that the findings of some of these studies, such as those by Penaloza (1994) and Ustuner and Holt (2007), have also indicated the existence of acculturation categories. Consequently, there has been renewed interest around the world in the acculturation perspective, resulting in recent studies by Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002), Berry et al. (2006) and Navas et al. (2007). The latest study by Berry et al. (2006), which involved over 5000 immigrant adolescents from 26 different cultural backgrounds living in 13 countries, is the largest of its kind.

UK consumer acculturation studies have been relatively limited in number, compared with the number of studies carried out in North America and other parts of the world (see Chapter Two, Table 2.3). The UK-based studies that exist have emerged more recently (Jamal and Chapman, 2000; Sekhon, 2007) and have tended to miss out on the developments in research occurring at the same time elsewhere in the world. Thus while some UK studies on consumer acculturation have been based on the socialisation perspective, not many have taken the acculturation perspective and focused on the different outcomes of acculturation. Thus while elsewhere in the world there is a substantial body of literature using the acculturation perspective, which precedes and supersedes studies using the socialisation perspective, in the UK this is mostly lacking. Using the acculturation perspective to study UK consumer acculturation is valuable because it facilitates the capture of multiple factors such as age, gender, religion, length of stay in the host country, and nationality. This enables their relationship with acculturation and the effect on consumer behaviour to be studied within a defined period of time and cutting across generations of the

immigrant population. Moreover, such a study allows for quantification of both the acculturation outcomes and also the consumption goals such as brand preferences.

Hence, there is a need for research based on the consumer acculturation perspective focusing on the outcomes of acculturation, which will contribute towards the study of consumer acculturation in the UK.

This section has summarised certain aspects of acculturation studies that were reviewed in depth in Chapter Two. The acculturation perspective and socialisation perspectives that have been used to study consumer acculturation have also been explored. Consequently, a gap in the literature on consumer acculturation has been identified, specifically around UK studies examining the outcomes of acculturation and their impact on the consumer behaviour of acculturating populations.

The next section will look at the concepts of biculturalism and situational ethnicity, considering how these have been used in consumer acculturation studies, in order to define the scope of the study.

3.3 Biculturalism and situational ethnicity

The concepts of biculturalism and situational ethnicity were discussed in-depth in Chapter Two. This section will consider whether studies of consumption using biculturalism, multiple identities and situational ethnicity do justice to the spectrum of acculturation outcomes from a consumer acculturation perspective.

Lindridge et al. (2004), in their study of South Asian women in Britain, found that these women exhibited multiple identities in different situations, as seen through their consumption based on their imagined multiple worlds. This study showed the

way in which generational differences and acculturation result in multiple identities which can be ascribed to a bicultural existence. A similar study of UK Asian Indians showed that participants felt the need to negotiate between the two cultures which were visible through their consumption (Sekhon and Szmigin, 2009). However, it is interesting to note that in both of these studies; the participants were a small group of second generation immigrants who were influenced by their parents on one hand and by mainstream society on the other. These second generation immigrants were acknowledged by both sets of authors as being bicultural, which would place them in the 'integrated' category of Berry's acculturation framework. Previous studies by Padilla (1980) and Szapocznik and Kurtines (1993) have also used the term 'bicultural', which involves the individual simultaneously in both of the cultures with which they are in contact. Berry (1997) explains that this use of the term 'bicultural' corresponds closely to the integration category in his acculturation framework (Berry, 1980). In fact, in one of his studies examining the acculturation of the Aboriginal Peoples in Canada, he uses the term 'biculturation' instead of 'integration' (Berry, 1999a).

Research by Chattaraman et al. (2010) on Hispanics in the USA added to the understanding of biculturalism. American and Hispanic cultural icons were used as cultural indicators in this study, which found that Hispanic-dominant and mainstream-dominant consumers were less responsive to cultural cues in the environment and also showed fewer preference shifts in response to these cultural indicators. However, bicultural consumers displayed significant shifts in their attitudes and purchase intentions for Hispanic and mainstream apparel brands when shown the Hispanic and mainstream cultural icons.

Similar findings were described by Hong et al. (2000). They explained that bicultural individuals engage in cultural frame shifting in response to contextual cultural cues in a manner that is congruent with the cultural icon shown. Chattaraman et al. (2010) also conclude that those who have integrated into both cultures are more likely to switch between the host and ethnic cultures than those who are low and high ethnic identifiers. As explained above, Hong et al. (2000) and Chattaraman et al. (2010) suggest that consumers exhibiting biculturalism can be classified as 'integrated' consumers as per Berry's (1980) taxonomy.

Chattaraman et al. (2010) indicate that interest in biculturalism in the USA has grown because bicultural Hispanics are currently the largest acculturation category, making up 53% of the total US Hispanic population. However, no comparable research has been carried out in the UK, so the relative size of the various acculturation categories is unknown. This research will consider categories of acculturation in the UK, consider their size, and examine their effect on consumer behaviour. The scope of the study will be broader than previous UK studies, which have focused on the 'integrated' consumers, by including the notions of biculturalism and multiple identities.

Having established the need for UK research on consumer acculturation based on the outcomes of acculturation, the next section will look at the role of ethnicity in the debate and practice of marketing in the UK. The section will then consider the focus of the study.

3.4 The role of ethnicity in the field of marketing in the UK

Britain is a multicultural society. However, marketing is lagging some other social sciences in embracing debates on ethnicity (Burton, 2002). Relatively little effort has been devoted to this important area, so that meaningful frameworks are now needed to improve practice in relation to ethnic marketing (Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998).

The population of the UK is now more diverse than ever before. Ethnic diversity is particularly striking in locations such as Birmingham, Bradford, Leicester, London and Manchester. It is therefore increasingly important to understand how the diverse population segments that make up the UK differ in terms of their values, need states, buying patterns, patterns of acculturation and responses to marketing stimuli. Ethnicity becomes an important consumer characteristic as societies become more multicultural. It can impact upon a variety of consumer behaviours such as “styles of dress, tastes in music and leisure time pursuits, or in food and drink consumption” (Bocock, 1993, p. 80). Cultures and traditions have a great influence on the consumption behaviour of different consumers who make up these segments of the population.

At 8% per cent of the UK population, a decadal population growth of 53% and with annual spending power of between £12–15 billion (MRS, 2008), the size of the ethnic minorities’ population is large enough not to be treated as marginal. Statistical trends indicate that the ethnic population in Britain is likely to increase further due to a combination of migration and higher rates of fertility among ethnic groups. This signals a need for academicians and marketing practitioners to become

more involved in debates on ethnicity in the field of marketing and consumer behaviour (Burton, 2002).

Palumbo and Teich (2004) indicate that in Europe, new immigrants are beginning to impact the economic, social and political scene. These authors suggest that one area in which more research is needed is around the effect of ethnic target marketing on both acculturated and unacculturated minorities. Marketing efforts based on the assumption that assimilation is the only mode of acculturation are not only ill informed, but may also alienate large segments of the acculturating groups (Jun et al., 1993).

Burton (2000) has proposed a research agenda for incorporating ethnicity into marketing discourse. She suggests that high on the agenda should be an assessment of acculturation with respect to a range of goods and services. She also argues that it is important to assess the implications of acculturation on future products and services under development. This will help in assessing whether or not members of ethnic minority groups should be targeted in the same way as the host population (Burton, 2002). Such a research agenda is designed to generate more interest in what is a very complex yet interesting research area in marketing.

3.4.1 British Indians

South Asians (mainly comprising Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans) represent about 51% of ethnic minorities in the UK (Census, 2001). Although ethnic groups such as Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans are often classed under the one umbrella of 'South Asians', it is important to recognise that each of these ethnic groups represent a diversity of tradition,

language, food, dress, historical legacy and religion. This renders as inaccurate the assumption that 'South Asians' are a homogenous group (Bhopal et al., 1991). Moreover, people from different ethnic groups do not necessarily acculturate in the same way (Berry et al., 1987; Seitz, 1998). Therefore, it is inappropriate to study Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans under the heading of 'South Asians' as one homogenous group.

Of the British population of 60 million, over one million are people of Indian origin, making them the largest ethnic minority subgroup in the UK (Census, 2001). There have been two major waves of immigration of persons of Indian origin to the UK. The first started in the late 1940s as a consequence of partition of British-ruled India, into India and Pakistan. The violence and social turbulence caused by this event led to a wave of immigration into the UK. The next wave happened in the late 1960s and 1970s, and as a consequence of the expulsion of persons of Indian origin from certain African countries, especially Uganda, due to increased Black African Nationalism. These Indians in the UK have, over the years, tended to experience upward mobility from the working to the middle class (Lindridge and Dibb, 2003), leading to suggestions that this socio-economic change may have an impact on their consumption and buyer behaviour.

Several researchers, such as Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002), Padilla (1980), Quester and Chong (2001) amongst others, explain that immigrants with a better income and socio-economic status generally display a greater degree of acculturation. It is also clear that the extent of acculturation is likely to influence the consumption patterns of ethnic consumers (Kang and Kim, 1998; Kara and Kara, 1996; O'Guinn et al., 1986; Shim and Chen, 1996). Thus it also seems plausible that

this upward mobility of British Indians may impact upon their degree of acculturation, which in turn results in a change in their consumption behaviour. Furthermore, in recent times, global free-trade and the advent of information technology have facilitated the recruitment of skilled personnel from across the world (Rudmin, 2003). As a result of this phenomenon, the fields of medicine, pharmacy, and law and information technology have seen an influx into the UK of people of Indian origin. The decision to focus this research on Indians living in the UK can therefore be justified by the increasing significance of this group to the UK economy, their upsurge in buying power, and their upward mobility; all of which have affected their acculturation levels and consumption patterns.

3.4.2 Defining 'British Indians'

For the purpose of this thesis, 'Indians living in the UK' will be referred to as 'British Indians'. British Indians can originate from anywhere in the world, such as India or East Africa, but they all have one thing in common and that is an Indian ancestry. Therefore, '*British Indians*' are defined as: '*Individuals born in or migrated to Britain and living in Britain, but with a common ancestry from India*'. Even within India, there are numerous languages spoken and therefore the 'Indian language' is defined as: '*any language (other than English) spoken in India such as Hindi, Gujarati, Punjabi etc.*'

3.4.3 British Indians and the concept of individualism–collectivism

The majority of acculturation studies have examined the adjustment of individuals from collectivist cultures such as Asia and Latin America to more individualistic cultures such as the UK and the US (Jun et al., 1993). It is thus important to

understand the concepts of collectivism and individualism in more detail, and also to consider how they are applied in the study of acculturation.

Hofstede’s (1980a, 1991) seminal research on cultural values in sixty-six countries introduced ‘individualism-collectivism’ as a central construct in cross-cultural psychology (Freeman and Bordia, 2001). Individualistic culture places greater importance on autonomy, independence and individual initiative (Hofstede, 1980a). It encourages the fulfilment of the needs and desires of the individual over those of the community to which they belong. A collectivistic culture emphasises group solidarity, duties and obligations, interdependence and relationships (Triandis, 1994); and the interests of the community come before the aspirations of the individual. It views the success of the group as a whole as important in promoting contentment and compromise.

Table 3.1 provides a general representation of individualistic and collectivistic cultures.

Table 3.1 Individualism and collectivism: A comparison

Individualism	Collectivism
Main assumption—rationality, reason	Main assumption—relatedness
Individual Principles—rules, laws	Collective Principles—duties, obligations
Autonomy	Interdependency
Self-fulfilment	Group harmony
Assertiveness	Compliance

Source: adapted from Kim, U., Triandis, H. C., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S. and Yoon, G. (1994), p. 7.

Hofstede (1980b) classified British culture as ‘individualist’ and Indian culture as ‘collectivist’. Triandis (1994) and Gomez (2003) note that individualism and

collectivism are the two poles of a continuum and that both of these cultural systems may be demonstrated by individuals in different proportions. The extent to which individualism or collectivism are favoured in a culture (Triandis, 1994) is one of the ways of differentiating ethnic groups (Phinney, 1996). Furthermore, Triandis (2004, p. 90) has stated that “the perceptions and behaviour of people in collectivist cultures are different from the perceptions and behaviour of people in individualist cultures”. The amount of dissimilarity between the original and the host cultures determines the extent of acculturation that has taken place. This is because the pace at which acculturation occurs is dependent upon the difference in the degree of individualism in the cultures of the home and host countries (Gentry et al., 1995). Also, people in collectivist cultures are known to better tolerate the discrepancy between cultural identity and cultural behaviour (Triandis, 1993). Hence collectivistic individuals are able to change their behaviour to reflect a new culture, while still retaining their original cultural identity, or vice versa (Jun et al., 1993).

Hutnik (1991, p. 138) mentioned that a British Indian “may see himself/herself as British and yet positively affirm many aspects of the culture of his/her origin”. Mehta and Belk (1991, p. 409), in their study of Indians living in the US, observed that “Indian immigrants adapted to the US culture in some ways, but not in others”. Joy and Dholakia (1991) made similar interpretations about Indian immigrants to North America. Furthermore, Lindridge (2001) suggested that British Indian individuals exist in cultural terms between Indian and British cultures in varying extents; they live and intermingle between two opposing cultures whereby they believe that both sets of cultural values are relevant to them in varying proportions. Therefore, Lindridge (2001) proposed that British Indians follow a bidimensional model of acculturation since they co-exist between Indian and British cultures to

varying degrees. These observations on the collectivist nature of Indian culture as against the individualist nature of British culture are worth noting, as the present study is concerned with the acculturation of British Indians and the effect of this acculturation on consumer behaviour.

3.5 Proposed model for the research

The previous sections of this chapter have established the need to study the consumer behaviour of acculturating consumers in the UK based on the outcomes of acculturation. Chapter Two looked at the literature relating to how consumer behaviour finds expression through brand preference. It also highlighted the association between demographic factors and acculturation, and the consequences for consumer behaviour.

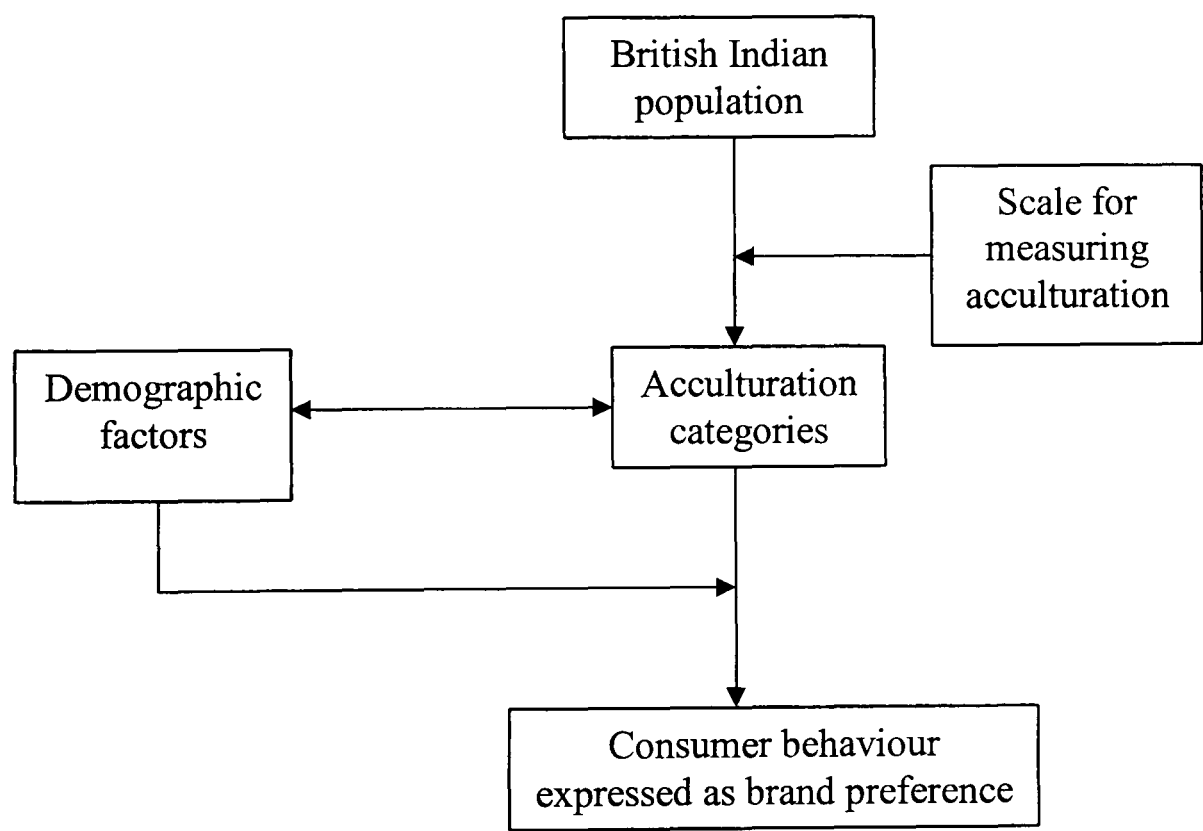
The importance of British Indians as the largest ethnic minority group in UK society has been examined, particularly in relation to the collectivist nature of Indian society versus the individualist nature of British society. The changing nature of the British Indian population, with their upward mobility within British society and the effects on consumer behaviour have also been discussed. Consequently, this ethnic group can be considered an interesting subject for the study.

Against this backdrop, a research framework is now developed. This will allow investigation of the extent and ways in which acculturation affects consumer behaviour expressed in terms of the stated brand preferences of British Indians.

A simplified framework for the study is presented in Figure 3.1, with a full model provided in Figure 3.5. The components included in the model, details of how the model is constructed and the linkages between the components contained within it

will be discussed. First, this will involve recapitulating the ways in which acculturation can be studied in order to select an acculturation framework for use in the research. Second, the various scales available to measure acculturation will be considered and the rationale for choosing the scale used here explained. Third, the reasons for using brand preference as an indicator of consumer acculturation will be explored. Fourth, the demographic variables that are associated with acculturation will be reviewed, and the moderating effect of these variables on acculturation and brand preference will be considered.

Figure 3.1 A simplified view of the proposed model



3.5.1 Acculturation categories

As discussed in Chapter Two, there are two models of acculturation: the unidimensional model and the bidimensional model. These are based on the manner in which acculturation takes place. The unidimensional model, also called the assimilationist model, assumes that as people in a particular ethnic group start to

acquire the host culture, they will lose their original culture. Eventually they will be indistinguishable from the host culture (Garcia and Lega, 1979, Gordon, 1964; Hair, Jr and Anderson, 1972). This approach is referred to as monocultural (Mendoza, 1989). Penaloza (1994) criticises the assimilation research stream because it overlooks the possibility of other options which may better explain the increasing diversity of consumer behaviour. Moreover, other authors argue that this model is based on an inherent assumption that the host culture is superior to the ethnic culture, a position which could be seen as offensive (Furnham and Bochner, 1986). They point to other progressive models which display less offensive outcomes of cultural contact. These models, referred to as bidimensional models, are based on the basic tenet that ethnic minorities embrace certain aspects of the host country's culture while still retaining aspects of their original culture (Berry, 1980). This approach is referred to as multicultural (Mendoza, 1989).

Although acculturation research was initially based on the assimilationist perspective, there is growing acceptance of the concept of multiculturalism, with a body of researchers concurring that acculturation is bidimensional in nature (Berry, 1980; Hutnik, 1991; Laroche et al., 1997; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mendoza, 1989; Phinney, 1990). These authors advocate the use of bidimensional models to study acculturation (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007).

This study will use Berry's (1980) framework, which is a bidimensional model, to study acculturation. Berry's acculturation categories are a function of an individual's identification with their ethnic culture, and their relationship or interaction with the host culture. The framework is considered appropriate for four reasons. First, it is based on the assumption that acculturation is multicultural and is bidimensional in

nature. This bidimensional model permits individuals to identify themselves with more than one culture and provides the flexibility for them to alternate between two cultures (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007). Hui et al. (1992), in their study of Greeks in Canada, provided empirical evidence to support the ability of Berry's acculturation framework to capture these complex aspects of acculturation. Second, in addition to the acculturation outcomes of separation, integration and marginalisation, the unidimensional view of the outcome of acculturation (assimilation) is also included in this framework (Lerman et al., 2009). Third, although similar bidimensional models of acculturative adaptation have been proposed by researchers like Hutnik (1991) and Penaloza (1994), these are essentially the same as Berry's (1980) framework. Fourth, Berry's framework has been widely applied in acculturation research (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Navas et al., 2007; Phinney et al., 1990), making it well tested and robust across different acculturative populations in different countries. Berry himself has used this framework in studies involving several immigrant groups in Canada and Australia (Berry et al., 1987; Berry et al., 1989).

3.5.2 Adapting Berry's framework for use in this research

Penaloza's (1994) model, which is similar to Berry's (1980) acculturation framework, has been successfully used to study consumption behaviour, implying that Berry's model might also be used to study consumption. Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002), for example, have used Berry's framework to examine the consumption behaviour of US Latinos.

To understand the basis of the different consumption patterns of consumers across different acculturation categories, it is important to look at both the attitudinal and

behavioural dimensions of acculturation categories (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). These two dimensions are distinct and both need to be assessed (Gentry et al., 1995; Jun et al., 1993). This is because the attitudinal dimension, which is akin to 'cultural identification' in Berry's (1980) framework, and the behavioural dimension, which is akin to 'participation in the host cultural behaviour' of Berry's (1980) framework, often do not change at the same pace. For example, individuals may participate extensively in the host cultural behaviour while still maintaining a strong ethnic identification. If cultural identification alone is used as an indicator of acculturation, these individuals will be considered as less acculturated, even though they may show behaviour patterns, including consumption behaviour, which reflect the host cultural behaviour. Therefore, the attitudinal dimension used on its own to study acculturation is inadequate, especially so when the affect of acculturation on consumption behaviour is to be studied (Hui et al., 1992).

Padilla (1980) and Deshpande et al. (1986) argue that both the attitudes and behaviours of an individual must be studied to fully understand the extent of an individual's acculturation. However, they have used different terminologies to express this idea. Padilla (1980) uses the term 'ethnic loyalty', while Deshpande et al. (1986) refer to 'ethnic identity' to describe the attitudinal dimension of acculturation. They also use the terms 'cultural awareness' and 'ethnicity or ethnic affiliation', respectively, to describe the behavioural dimension of acculturation.

3.5.2.1 Attitudinal dimension of acculturation

Ethnic identity is an individual's cultural identity (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002) and consists of relatively stable properties (Zmud and Arce, 1992) like nationality, country of origin and ancestry. In the context of acculturation, an immigrant

individual's identification with their ethnic culture is described as the attitudinal dimension of acculturation (Gentry et al., 1995). It is the fundamental way in which an individual identifies him/herself at any point in time.

3.5.2.2 Behavioural dimension of acculturation

Padilla (1980) has referred to the behavioural dimension as 'cultural awareness'. This is an individual's awareness of specific cultural aspects such as language familiarity and usage; and cultural heritage, which is the knowledge of cultural materials, foods etc., of both the ethnic and the host cultures. In the context of acculturation, an individual's participation in host and ethnic cultural behaviours can be considered to be the behavioural dimension of acculturation. This has been mostly studied using language (Laroche et al., 1992; Valencia, 1985). Even so, the use of language may not be appropriate for all acculturation groups and therefore the use of other behavioural aspects such as social affiliation and cultural familiarity need to be considered (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

3.5.2.3 Berry's categories in terms of dimensions of acculturation

Based on these two dimensions of acculturation, Berry's acculturation categories can be described in terms of ethnic identity and participation in host versus ethnic cultural behaviour. By adopting this approach, it is possible to incorporate both the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of acculturation (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

Table 3.2 Berry’s categories in terms of dimensions of acculturation

Assimilation	When individuals have low ethnic identity and exhibit high participation in the host cultural behaviour.
Integration	When there is high ethnic identity and exhibition of high participation in both host and ethnic cultural behaviour.
Separation	When individuals have high ethnic identity and exhibit low host cultural behaviour and high ethnic cultural behaviour.
Marginalisation	When individuals exhibit low ethnic identity and exhibit cultural behaviour acceptable to neither group.

Source: adapted from Berry, J. W. (1997), p. 10.

The study will follow Cohen’s (1978) suggestion that subjective self-labelling is the only valid measure of ethnicity, since it indicates the internal beliefs of the individual and shows the reality of the ethnic affiliation. It will be a prerequisite for individuals participating in this research to self-label themselves as ‘British Indians’ in order to take part.

3.5.2.4 The ‘marginalisation’ category of Berry’s (1980) framework

Berry’s (1980) ‘marginalisation’ acculturation category involves individuals losing vital aspects of their original culture, and not replacing them by adopting those of the mainstream society (Berry and Kim, 1988). No group will voluntarily seek this acculturation outcome, since individuals within this category are often in a state of personal and social conflict (Berry, 1980; Berry, 1990b), resisting the pulls of both the mainstream and the ethnic culture (Penaloza, 1994). Therefore, they are not expected to exhibit behaviour ascribable to either cultural group and are usually alienated (Lerman et al., 2009). Berry (1980) suggests that the ‘marginalisation’ category is the least stabilised of the four acculturation outcomes. For this reason, in

his earlier studies, Berry measured assimilation, integration and separation as a part of the general framework; and used the Marginality scale constructed by Mann (1958) to approximate the marginalisation category (Berry et al., 1989). However, Paloma et al. (2010) and Rudmin (2006) question whether acculturation researchers should consider marginalisation to be an acculturation outcome at all. Their concern is that individuals do not wish to be marginalised, and that this situation may arise only if the ethnic minority individual suffers discrimination from the dominant society.

Hutnik (1991) and Penaloza (1994) chose specifically to include a 'marginalisation' category in their studies. Hutnik (1991), in her research on South Asians in the UK, collected data from 103 adolescent girls with a mean age of 16.2 from a school in Birmingham. The nature of her sample allowed the development of four acculturation outcomes. However, her study does not link these outcomes to consumption. Penaloza (1994) also studied all four acculturation outcome dimensions in a critical ethnographic study of Mexican Americans. By using a critical ethnography approach, she was able to access all acculturated categories of immigrants.

Nonetheless, most researchers who have used Berry's model have chosen not to include the 'marginalisation' category in their research. Phinney et al. (1990) justified this by arguing that the marginalisation category was the least satisfactory acculturation outcome and that it would not be possible to read much into the self-esteem patterns of these marginalised individuals. Navas et al. (2007) found that almost all of their results pertained only to the assimilation, integration and

separation categories, indicating the relative inability of the survey method to capture marginalised individuals. Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) have stressed that marketplace success is not a dominant premise in the marginalisation category. They added that it is likely that individuals in this category will neither be included in the available mailing lists nor be contactable by phone.

When Mendoza (1989) built a scale for measuring acculturation, he based it on the same principles as Berry's framework, but only included three acculturation patterns that were similar to Berry's categories, namely: cultural resistance, similar to Berry's separation category; cultural shift, similar to Berry's assimilation category; and cultural incorporation, similar to Berry's integration category. Mendoza (1989) chose not to measure the marginalisation category because he considered these three categories to be the most typical cultural lifestyle tendencies.

This research will study whether acculturation affects consumer behaviour expressed by way of brand preference. Since marginalised consumers can be considered to be in survival mode, they neither identify with the host nor the minority culture, so that links to either culture are unlikely to influence their consumption behaviour. These individuals are also likely to oppose the pulls of both ethnic and host cultures and brands (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Penaloza, 1994), such that it would be difficult to interpret much from their preferences for brands. To add to this, this category may be very difficult to identify on mailing lists or databases. Writing about individuals in the marginalised category, Lindridge and Dhillon (2005, p. 408) explain that the:

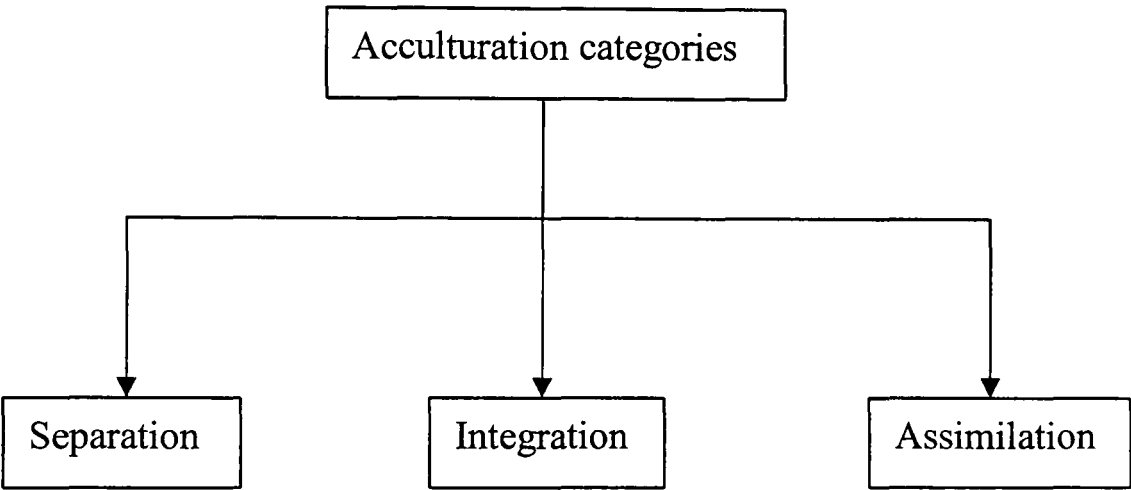
Culturally marginalised group is unable to engage with, let alone negotiate through the use of product consumption, daily interactions between South Asians and British White cultures. Using an ethno-consumerist methodology, our findings indicate cultural marginality arises from a combination of racism and in-group prejudice. Marginality, we suggest, results in the deliberate, self-destructive, non-engagement with culturally laden consumer objects.

To summarise, it is evident that there are several arguments for excluding the marginalisation category from studies: (a) it is the least favoured acculturation outcome; (b) this outcome occurs less frequently than others; (c) it is the least stable of the various acculturation outcomes; (d) there are issues regarding reaching the individuals in this category; (e) there are measurement issues, as little can be read into the consumption pattern of marginalised individuals; and (f) marketplace success is not an important issue for this category, as marginalised individuals may practise non-engagement with culturally-laden objects.

The disadvantage of not including this group in studies is that it will not be possible to ratify whether the marginalisation category is the least commonly occurring outcome amongst British Indians. Also, whether these individuals really resist the pulls of both cultures and the brands associated with them will be unclear. However, given the difficulties in reaching this population by using databases, there are real problems in their inclusion. On balance, considering the nature of this study and to avoid the complex and intractable measurement issues, it is considered best to exclude the marginalised category.

Based on the discussion presented above, the research will use Berry's (1980) framework for classifying British Indians into three acculturation categories, namely; separation, integration and assimilation (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 Berry's acculturation categories used in this research



The following hypothesis is proposed, to capture whether Berry's (1980) acculturation categories apply to the British Indian population:

Hypothesis H1-1: The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) apply to the British Indian community.

At this stage it is important to note that for reasons of fit with the discussion in this chapter, the hypotheses presented here are the alternate hypotheses. A full list of both the null and alternate hypotheses is provided in Table 3.5 towards the end of the chapter.

3.5.3 Scale for measuring acculturation categories

An instrument is required to measure the acculturation category of individuals to be studied. Some scales have been designed for specific ethnic groups, such as for

Cubans (Szapocznik et al., 1978), Chicanos (Olmedo et al., 1978) and Mexican Americans (Cuellar et al., 1980). Other scales have used the individualism-collectivism concept as a way of understanding acculturation (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis et al., 1988). Many acculturation scales emphasise the behavioural dimensions of acculturation, often focusing on language questions (Marin and Gamba, 1996; Tsai et al., 2000); while others emphasise the attitudinal dimensions (Felix-Ortiz et al., 1994; Sanchez & Fernandez, 1993).

One problem associated with many of these scales is that they either incorporate a single measure, such as language, or use a cluster of highly correlated variables, which are neither grounded in theory nor have been rigorously tested (Lerman et al., 2009). The use of socio-demographic characteristics, such as age, gender and generation as acculturation measurement variables, rather than as correlates of acculturation, is an added problem associated with many of these scales. Such an approach is problematic since these socio-demographic factors do not have one-to-one correspondence with the process of cultural change. Also, when a validation criterion like 'generation' is included in the instrument, it tends to produce abnormally high correlations between the criterion and the scale (Marin et al., 1987). Therefore, it is important to adopt a scale that is based on indicators of cultural customs, with socio-demographic characteristics being used to support the external validity of the instrument (Mendoza, 1989).

Further, some authors (Jun et al., 1993) have suggested including both attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of acculturation in the instrument. Together, these dimensions provide the necessary information about the extent of an individual's acculturation (Deshpande et al., 1986; Gentry et al., 1995; Hui et al., 1992;

Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Padilla, 1980). All of the scales mentioned above, whether based on behavioural or attitudinal dimension or both, still take essentially a unidimensional perspective in that they measure the level of assimilation. Yet, as already stated, Berry (1980) considers acculturation to be bidimensional, suggesting that while individuals can move from the ethnic culture to the host culture, they often retain something of their ethnic culture as well. Taking a bidimensional approach recognises these lifestyle patterns in a way that the scales mentioned above cannot.

The Cultural Lifestyle Inventory (CLSI), which is a scale designed by Mendoza (1989), addresses these concerns about measuring acculturation. The CLSI is different from scales that measure levels of assimilation; instead it measures categories of acculturation. Mendoza (1989, p. 373) explains the salience of this point:

Because acculturation involves the interaction of at least two cultures, theoretical and empirical formulations must measure and describe the degree of acquisition of the customs of an alternate society, as well as the degree of retention of native cultural customs. This perspective helps distinguish between individuals who are similar in their level of immersion into an alternate society but dissimilar in the degree to which they have retained their native customs.

The CLSI is an instrument which is inspired by Berry's (1980) framework. Although Mendoza (1989) uses a different terminology, the descriptions of the categories he uses are similar to those used by Berry. Table 3.3 looks at the

similarities between Berry’s acculturation categories and Mendoza’s acculturation patterns.

Table 3.3 Berry’s acculturation categories and Mendoza’s acculturation patterns

<i>Berry’s acculturation categories</i>	<i>Mendoza’s acculturation patterns</i>
Separation	Cultural Resistance
Integration	Cultural Incorporation
Assimilation	Cultural Shift

Source: adapted from Lerman et al. (2009), p. 401.

Mendoza’s CLSI proposes three acculturation patterns that match Berry’s framework: (i) cultural resistance, (ii) cultural shift, and (iii) cultural incorporation. Cultural resistance is similar to Berry’s separation category, with individuals in this category against the acquisition of alternate cultural norms, while upholding ethnic customs. Mendoza’s cultural incorporation is equivalent to Berry’s integration category, which involves an adaptation of customs from both ethnic and alternate cultures. The cultural shift acculturation type considers a deliberate substitution of alternate cultural norms for ethnic customs which can be compared with Berry’s assimilation category. Magana et al. (1996) criticises the CLSI because it does not offer a method for categorising the marginalisation outcome. However, it is important to acknowledge that this may not be a major problem in adopting the CLSI for a consumer behaviour study. This is because the individuals in the marginalisation category are largely inaccessible and therefore unlikely to be part of marketing sample frames (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Lerman et al., 2009).

The CLSI is chosen as an appropriate scale for this research for several reasons. It is based on a theoretically sound model of acculturation (Lerman et al., 2009) and is designed to measure patterns of acculturation rather than levels of assimilation (Magana et al., 1996). In the past, researchers have achieved success in categorising acculturating individuals using the CLSI (Lerman et al., 2009; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). Using the CLSI is beneficial because it avoids putting the bicultural scores in the middle of the range; this is important because biculturality is not merely a halfway point between the two cultural extremes, and this approach allows the researcher to investigate the correlates of biculturality (Magana et al., 1996).

Lerman et al. (2009) advocate using the CLSI to measure acculturation because it has a high level of reliability and validity (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). The CLSI incorporates multiple items and measures five orthogonal components of acculturation: (i) intra-family language, (ii) extra-family language, (iii) social affiliation and activities, (iv) cultural familiarity and activities, and (v) cultural identification and pride, this being essential because acculturation is multicultural and multifaceted and it is not sufficient to use only a single variable like 'language' or even a cluster of highly correlated variables (Mendoza, 1989). Moreover, the CLSI is able to measure the complexities of acculturation, because individuals can show a cultural shift on one set of customs, and cultural incorporation on other cultural practices, while also displaying cultural resistance on other scale components; and the scale is able to capture the dynamic aspects of acculturation such as changes in the context (Mendoza, 1989) which are commonly described as situational ethnicity (Stayman and Deshpande, 1989).

Interestingly, the CLSI has been used successfully on various ethnic groups such as Latinos in the US (Magana et al., 1996; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans (Mendoza, 1989), Mexican Americans (Lerman et al., 2009), and South East Asians (Bengali, Indian and Pakistani) in the US (Mansur, R., current PhD student of Mendoza, personal communication, 23 January 2008). Furthermore, it incorporates twenty one behavioural questions and eight attitudinal questions, thus representing both the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of acculturation and does not include socio-demographic factors such as age, gender and generation within the instrument, making it one of the most robust acculturation measurement scales.

3.5.4 Acculturation categories and brand preference

In Chapter Two, consumers adjusting to a different culture have been shown to embrace new roles with differing levels of ethnic cultural identifications and participation in the host cultural behaviours (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002). To adapt to these new circumstances, these consumers tend to modify their consumption lifestyles, which include their preferences for particular brands. Acculturation thus leads to lifestyle changes which in turn influence aspects of their consumer behaviour (Mathur et al., 2003).

Jun et al. (1993, p. 81), in their study of Korean Americans, established that both cultural attitudes and cultural behaviours of an individual change during acculturation, and they suggest that:

The different modes of acculturation can be used as segmenting dimensions for an ethnic market in the sense that the importance of the attributes of a product may vary for the consumers depending on their acculturation mode. Consumers who maintain cultural identification with the traditional culture may seek products with inherent symbolic ethnic meanings, while consumers who want to identify with the new culture may show a conspicuous consumption pattern to help them to be recognised as members of the host society. Consumers who maintain cultural identification with the traditional culture may be strongly attached to possessions which provide cultural meaning, and consumers who have not adopted the new culture to much extent may show a traditionally ethnic consumption pattern.

The concept of ethnocentrism was also explored in Chapter Two. It was observed that consumer lifestyle segments, consumer ethnocentrism and purchase behaviour can be studied together to arrive at meaningful conclusions about the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behaviour based on consumer lifestyles. Consumer ethnocentrism and acculturation can be combined to develop the current research in a beneficial and meaningful way. While consumer ethnocentrism emphasises in-group favouritism, which is essentially the attachment to the in-group's preferences and behaviour (Levine and Campbell, 1972), acculturation is the degree of immersion in the native or alternate cultures (Mendoza, 1989). Sharma et al. (1995), in their study of the effect of ethnocentrism on the evaluation of products for purchase, found that consumers who were more open to alternate cultures showed less consumer ethnocentric tendencies. They also found that people

with collectivistic goals were more ethnocentric than those with individualistic goals. Based on this study (Sharma et al., 1995), it is meaningful to study ethnocentrism amongst the acculturation categories because consumers who are more open to the alternate culture will show a greater degree of acculturation and less consumer ethnocentrism.

In this research on British Indians, 'in-groups' are the ethnic groups (Indians) and 'out-groups' are the mainstream or the dominant society (British society) for an ethnocentric consumer. A similar distinction applies to the brands which individuals prefer, with 'in-group' brands being the ethnic brands with which members of an ethnic group associate, and 'out-group' brands being seen by the ethnic group as from the host society.

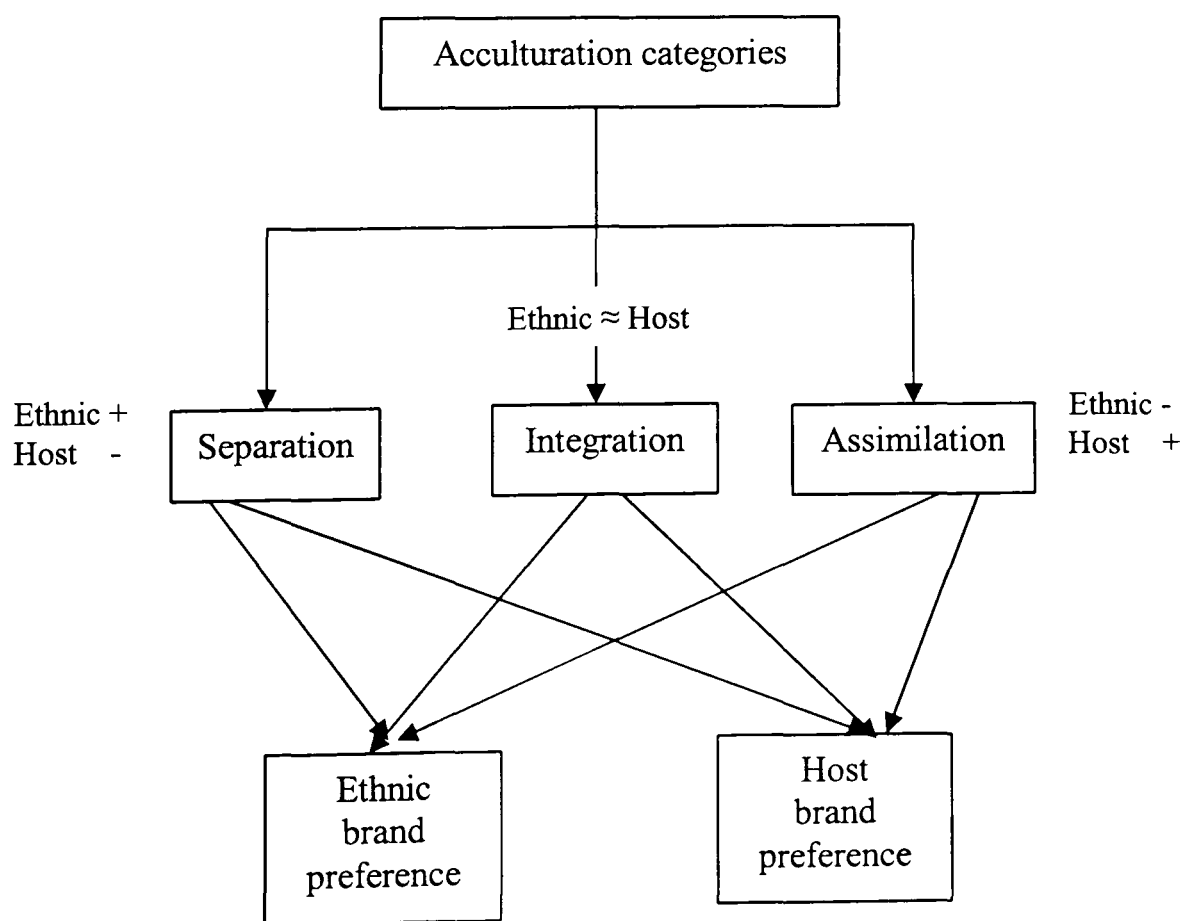
Given what is known about the changing cultural attitudes and behaviours of an acculturating population and about the concept of ethnocentrism, consumers in the separation category might be expected to identify more with the minority culture, with their reference group likely to be with people from the ethnic culture. Brands remind people of places and relatives, and serve as conductors of memories—good or otherwise. Individuals in this category, who may yearn for things from 'back home', are likely to prefer ethnic brands over those from the host culture (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

Consumers in the integration category are likely to have a repertoire of preferred brands drawn from across the host and ethnic cultures. Ultimately, they may

integrate brands from both cultures, preferring specific brands in particular contexts. Such brand preferences could result from these consumers considering both the ethnic and the host societies to be their reference groups. For consumers in the assimilation category, a preference for brands from the host culture might be a way of seeking liberation from their ethnic culture. For these consumers, individuals from the host society are more likely to be their reference group (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

The linkage between acculturation categories and brand preference can be depicted by extending the previous Figure 3.2, as shown in Figure 3.3:

Figure 3.3 Acculturation categories and brand preference



The following hypotheses are proposed, to investigate whether acculturation categories impact on brand preference for the British Indian population:

Hypothesis H1-2: For the British Indian community, there are significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories.

Hypothesis H1-3a: In the British Indian community, consumers in the Assimilation category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the other categories.

Hypothesis H1-3b: In the British Indian community, consumers in the Integration category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the Separation category; and are significantly more likely to prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the Assimilation category.

Hypothesis H1-3c: In the British Indian community, consumers in the Separation category are significantly more likely to prefer ethnic brands more often and host brands less often than consumers in the other categories.

3.5.5 Demographic factors and acculturation

The literature on the association between demographic factors and acculturation was reviewed in Section 2.4.2 of Chapter Two. Over the years, researchers have identified several demographic factors that have a relationship with the acculturation pattern of immigrant populations. Table 3.4 summarises such findings concerning the relationships between demographic variables and acculturation.

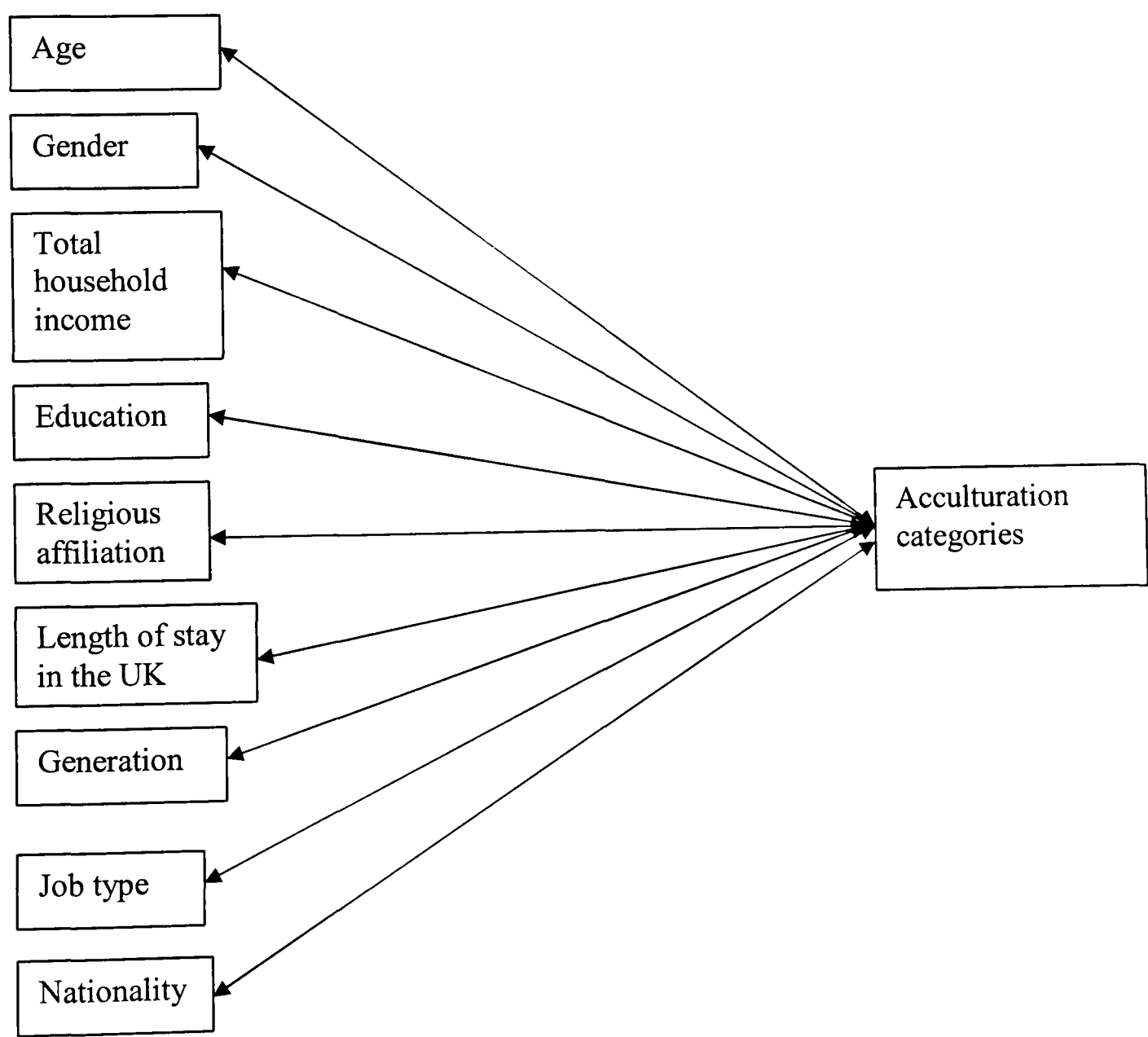
Table 3.4 Studies on demographic variables and acculturation

	Variable	Summary of observations	References
1	Age	Younger members of a family acculturate more rapidly than older ones and use host brands	Penaloza, 1994; Szapocznik et al., 1978
		When acculturation starts early in life, the process is much smoother	Berry, 1997
		Older consumers are less educated, more traditional, closer to their ethnic heritage and use ethnic brands	O'Guinn and Meyer, 1983; Quester and Chong, 2001
2	Gender	Males are likely to acculturate more quickly than females	Baldassini and Flaherty, 1982; Ghaffarian, 1987; Szapocznik et al., 1978; Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980
		There is no significant difference between males and females with respect to acculturation	Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Marin et al., 1987; Padilla 1980
3	Income	More acculturated individuals have higher levels of income	Goldlust and Richmond, 1974; Quester and Chong, 2001
		People in the separation category have lower household incomes than those in the integration and assimilation categories	Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002
		Although acculturation is positively related to income level of an individual, it is important to ascertain whether income being reported is spouse's income or that of the head of the household	Padilla, 1980
		There is no significant association between income and the extent of acculturation	Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005
4	Education	More acculturated individuals or individuals in the assimilated category exhibit higher educational levels	Hoyer and Deshpande, 1982; Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Padilla 1980
		There is no significant association between education and acculturation	Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005
5	Religious affiliation	Religion has a significant relationship with the level of acculturation	Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005
		Religious differences do not matter when it came to acculturation	Gupta, 1975
6	Length of stay in host country	Those immigrants who live longer in the host country show a greater extent of acculturation	Kara and Kara, 1996; Kwak and Berry, 2001; Lee and Tse, 1994; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Nguyen and Williams, 1989; Rosenthal et al., 1996; Quester and Chong, 2001; Szapocznik et al., 1978
		There is no significant relationship between length of stay in the host country and the extent of acculturation of individuals	Mehta and Belk, 1991; Penaloza, 1994; Shim and Chen, 1996
7	Generation	Older generation individuals are more acculturated than younger generation individuals	Kurian, 1986; Kwak and Berry, 2001; Matsuoka, 1990; Nguyen and Williams, 1989
		Second generation individuals are more acculturated than first generation individuals. Subsequent generations are even more acculturated than first and second generation	Bhopal, 1998; Mendoza, 1989; Padilla, 1980;
		First generation individuals who fall into the separation category are more likely to have been born in the home country and are less acculturated	Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002
8	Job type	Contact with people of host culture	Jun et al., 1993; Khairullah and

		augments the process of acculturation. Professions that provide this opportunity accelerate acculturation	Khairullah 1999; Lee 1989; Mendoza, 1989; Padilla, 1980; Penaloza, 1994;
9	Nationality	With higher degree of acculturation, there is a greater probability of the individuals holding host country citizenship	Quester and Chong, 2001
		Individuals seeking permanent residency in the host country are more acculturated	Black and Gregersen, 1991; Jun et al., 1993; Mendoza, 1989;

The relationship between the demographic factors and acculturation categories is depicted by the diagram shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 The association between demographics and acculturation categories



The following hypotheses are included in the study to explore the relationship of these demographic variables with the acculturation categories:

Hypothesis H1-4a: The age of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4b: The gender of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4c: The total household income of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4d: The education level of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4e: The religious affiliation of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4f: The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4g: The generation to which British Indians belong is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4h: The job type of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

Hypothesis H1-4i: The nationality of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.

In addition to any direct influence of these demographics on acculturation category, it is important to consider whether these factors might moderate the relationship between acculturation and brand preference. Ogden et al. (2004), while exploring

the effect of acculturation on consumer purchase decision, suggested that the purchase outcome of subcultures is moderated by the degree of consumer acculturation. Since demographics are expected to be associated with consumer acculturation, there is merit in investigating whether demographics are also moderators of acculturation and brand preferences. For example, Wallendorf and Arnould (1988) have identified that since objects are laden with personal meanings, demographics such as gender and age determine differences in the objects preferred.

The following hypothesis is included in the study to explore the role of demographic variables as moderators of the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference:

Hypothesis H1-5: The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.

3.5.6 Full model of the research framework with hypotheses

This section has shown the evolution of the model at the heart of this study. A simplified framework was presented in Figure 3.1, with the fuller model shown in Figure 3.5. Starting with a look at acculturation categories, the section also has shown how Berry's framework can be adapted for this research. Attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of acculturation were examined. Berry's categories of acculturation were reviewed with specific reference as to how they will be used in this research. Mendoza's scale for measuring acculturation was laid out and the linkages between acculturation categories and brand preference, and the relationship

between demographic factors and acculturation were considered. The various hypotheses that will be tested later in this research have also been presented, a summary of which is shown in Table 3.5.

By integrating Figures 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4, the full research framework and the relationships between the components contained within it can be seen. Figure 3.5 shows this full model along with the corresponding hypotheses.

Figure 3.5 Full model for the research framework

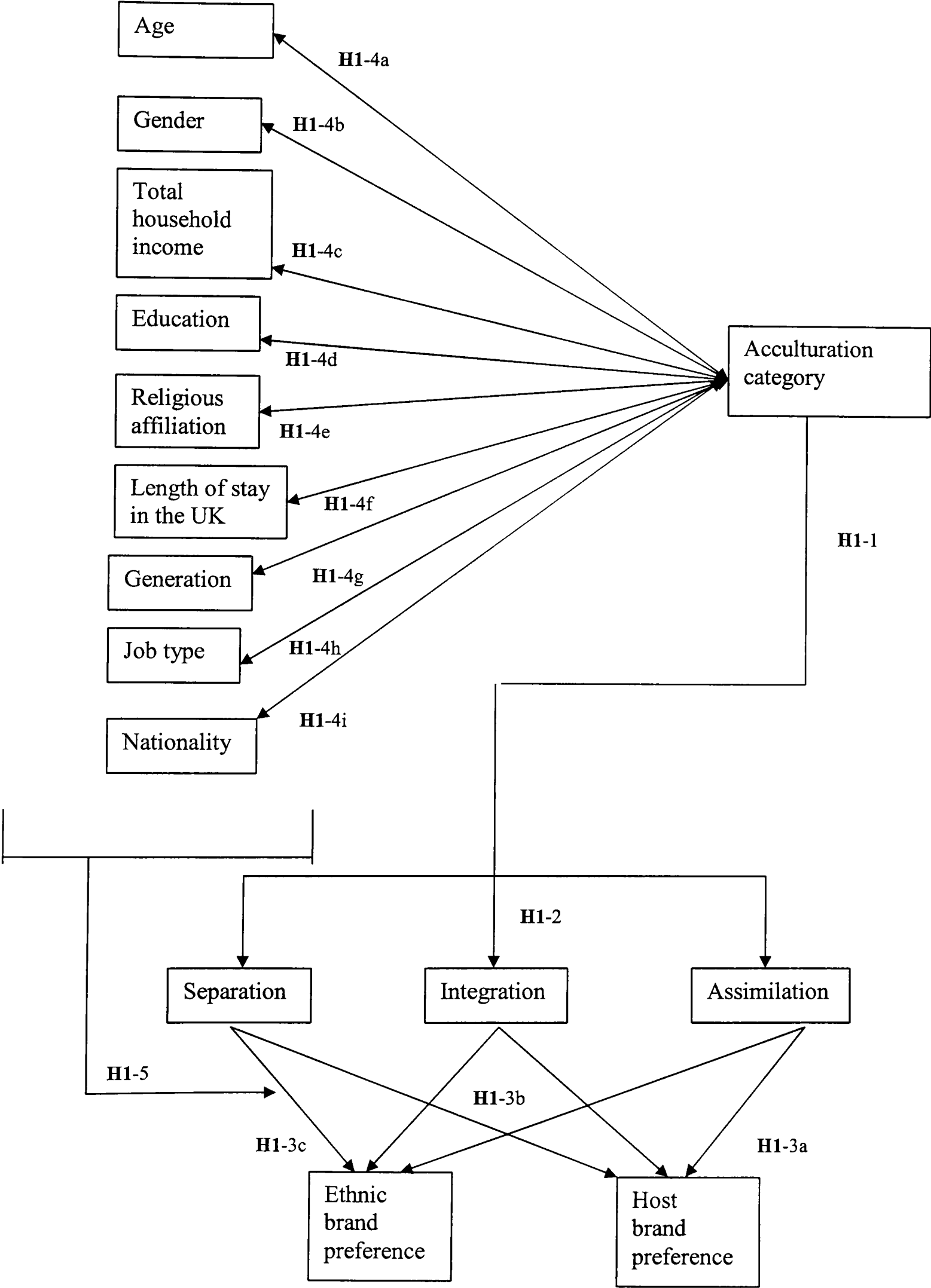


Table 3.5 Summary of hypotheses to be tested later in this research

H0-1	The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) do not apply to the British Indian community.
H1-1	The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) apply to the British Indian community.
H0-2	For the British Indian community, there are no significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories.
H1-2	For the British Indian community, there are significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories.
H0-3abc	In the British Indian community, consumers' membership of a particular acculturation category does not affect their brand preference.
H1-3a	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Assimilation category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the other categories.
H1-3b	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Integration category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the Separation category; and are significantly more likely to prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the Assimilation category.
H1-3c	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Separation category are significantly more likely to prefer ethnic brands more often and host brands less often than consumers in the other categories.
H0-4a	The age of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4a	The age of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4b	The gender of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4b	The gender of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4c	The total household income of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4c	The total household income of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4d	The education level of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4d	The education level of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4e	The religious affiliation of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4e	The religious affiliation of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4f	The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4f	The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4g	The generation to which British Indians belong is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4g	The generation to which British Indians belong is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4h	The job type of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4h	The job type of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4i	The nationality of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.

	The nationality of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-5	The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) do not moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.
H1-5	The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the research framework, drawing upon the literature on consumer acculturation, consumer behaviour and the relationship of demographic factors with acculturation. Section 3.2 has examined the history of acculturation studies and has laid the foundations for the research. Section 3.3 has looked at the concepts of biculturalism and situational ethnicity, and their relevance for the research. Section 3.4 has specifically explored the role of ethnicity in the field of marketing in the UK and narrowed down the focus to British Indians, considering how the concept of individualism-collectivism can be applied in this context. Having established the merit of studying the consumer behaviour of acculturating British Indians, the chapter has presented a framework for the research. The simplified framework is presented in Figure 3.1, leading to the evolution of the full model.

Section 3.5.1 revisits some of literature on the unidimensional and the bidimensional approaches to studying acculturation. The support for the bidimensional approach has been reiterated, laying the foundation for the use of Berry’s (1980) framework to study acculturation in this research. Section 3.5.2 goes on to show how Berry’s (1980) framework will be adapted, while section 3.5.3 shows how Mendoza’s (1989) CLSI scale will be used to measure the acculturation categories of British

Indians. Acculturation has been shown to lead to lifestyle changes which in turn influence aspects of consumer behaviour, including preferences for particular brands (Mathur et al., 2003).

Section 3.5.4 has looked at the linkage between acculturation categories and brand preference. Demographic variables, as being associated with acculturation and also as influencers of consumer behaviour, were previously considered in Chapter Two. The current chapter has shown how demographic variables can be integrated into the proposed model. The hypotheses to be tested in this research have also been stated. The chapter has concluded by presenting the full framework (see Figure 3.5) illustrating the relationship between the model's components, along with their corresponding hypotheses.

Having laid out the framework for this research, along with the hypotheses, the following chapter will discuss the methodology for executing the research.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology employed to test the conceptual framework developed from the literature review and presented in Chapter Three. This research includes a preliminary qualitative phase involving focus groups and dyads, followed by the main quantitative phase, in which the data are collected using online questionnaires. The statistical analysis tool used in the study is SPSS version 17.0.

Table 4.1 gives an overview of the research methodology adopted in this study. It also gives a snapshot of the approaches embraced in this study and the rationale for their use. The table identifies the relevant sections of this chapter where these topics are discussed in greater detail.

Table 4.1 Overview of research methodology

	Option/s chosen	Reasons for choice
Research philosophy (Section 4.2)	Positivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This philosophy is best suited for research where truth is determined through verification of predictions• This research seeks to verify whether Berry's (1980) acculturation categories exist in the British Indian context and if so, how they affect consumer behaviour
Research design (Section 4.3)	Descriptive cross-sectional	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This design is helpful when knowledge is meant to be based on empirical testing of relationships between variables based on formulated hypotheses• This research relies on previous knowledge obtained through detailed literature review and starts with the formulation of specific hypotheses
Phase I of research (Sections 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Preliminary questionnaire development• Qualitative research:<ul style="list-style-type: none">i. Focus groupsii. Dyads	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• A qualitative phase can be used to identify key issues, and to refine and construct a questionnaire to be used in a quantitative survey• This research used the qualitative phase to adapt the CLSI for the British Indian population, improve the content validity of the demographics questions and to get inputs on the brand preference section leading to development of the questionnaire
Phase II of research (Sections 4.7 to 4.11)	Quantitative: Large-scale survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Quantitative methods are deployed in research that are deductive in nature and study relationships• A study as broad as this is possible only by quantitative means. Also, previous studies in the same field have adopted this approach
Analytical methodology (Section 4.12)	Statistical tests: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cluster Analysis• One way ANOVA and KW test• CHAID• Spearman's Rho• Chi Square• Two way ANOVA	Statistical tests are used for testing the hypotheses under consideration <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cluster analysis—to determine the number of acculturation groups• One way ANOVA and KW—to compare these groups on brand preference• CHAID – to find out the primary differentiator for brand preference• Chi Square and Spearman's Rho—to study the relationship between demographics and acculturation• Two way ANOVA-to test whether demographics are moderators of relationship between acculturation and brand preference

The chapter is divided into eleven parts. Sections 4.2 and 4.3 provide a general overview of the research design. While Section 4.2 focuses on the philosophy of the

research, Section 4.3 compares and contrasts the different types of research designs and narrows them down to the descriptive cross-sectional research design for the main research phase. The preliminary questionnaire development is discussed in Section 4.4, the discussion of the focus groups and dyads is presented in Section 4.5, and the questionnaire resulting from the analysis of the focus groups and dyads is presented in Section 4.6. The pre-testing of the questionnaire is discussed in Section 4.7. Having finalised the questionnaire, Section 4.8 delves into choosing the questionnaire format, identifying a relevant database and the process of selecting the sample. The section also describes the estimation of the minimum required sample size and the data collection process. Section 4.9 explains how research ethics were adhered to in this research. Sections 4.10 and 4.11 discuss the key concepts of reliability, validity and research bias. Section 4.12 explains the statistical data analysis techniques used in the research. Lastly, Section 4.13 presents a summary of the chapter.

4.2 Philosophy of research design

The starting point for debates on research philosophy is always ontology, followed by epistemology and methodology. The assumptions that are made about the nature of reality pertain to ontology. The general set of assumptions about the best ways of enquiring into the nature of the world is referred to as epistemology. The techniques that are used to enquire into a specific situation constitute the methodology. There are three main ontological positions in the social sciences and these have been termed representationalism, relativism and nominalism (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Table 4.2 gives a summary of these three main ontological positions and their

linkages to epistemological positions with specific reference to social science.

Table 4.2 Ontologies and epistemologies in social science

Ontology of social science	Representationalism	Relativism	Nominalism
Truth	is determined through verification of predictions	requires consensus between different viewpoints	depends on who establishes it
Fact	are concrete	depends on viewpoint of observer	are all human creations
Epistemology of social science	Positivism	Relativism	Social Constructionism

Source: adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. (2002), p. 33.

The ontology of representationalism assumes reality to be external and objective; while the corresponding stance in epistemology, i.e. positivism, assumes that knowledge is important provided it is based on observations of this external reality. The ontology of nominalism assumes that reality is not external, but is determined by people; while the corresponding stance in epistemology, i.e. social constructionism, focuses on how this reality is socially constructed. The ontology of relativism assumes that different viewers have diverse views which can be taken into account by capturing a wide sample of these varying viewpoints. The methodology to be used in any research will depend on the epistemology chosen (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Table 4.3 gives a summary of different methodology elements for the different epistemologies.

Table 4.3 Elements of methodology for social science epistemologies

Elements of methods	Positivism	Relativism	Social Constructionism
Aims	Discovery	Exposure	Invention
Starting Points	Hypotheses	Suppositions	Meanings
Designs	Experiment	Triangulation	Reflexivity
Techniques	Measurement	Survey	Conversation
Analysis/ Interpretation	Verification/ falsification	Probability	Sense-making
Outcomes	Causality	Correlation	Understanding

Source: adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. (2002), p. 34.

4.2.1 The two paradigms in social science

There are two main paradigms in social science research: the qualitative paradigm and the quantitative paradigm. There have been debates on qualitative versus quantitative paradigms since the 1960s (Oakley, 2000). In the qualitative paradigm, the ontological position is that reality is subjective and multiple, as seen by participants in a study. In epistemological terms, the researcher interacts with the subject being researched. The methodologies used in the qualitative paradigm are inductive, with mutual simultaneous shaping of factors taking place. The design of the research is emergent in nature, with the patterns and theories being identified through the research process. These patterns and theories are then checked for accuracy and reliability through verification (Creswell, 1994; Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

In the quantitative paradigm, the ontological position is that reality is objective and singular, and separate from the researcher. The epistemological position is that the researcher is independent from the subject being researched. The methodologies used in the quantitative paradigm are deductive in nature and look for cause and effect relationships. The design of the research is 'static', where the categories are isolated before the study and generalisations of the study are context-free, leading to predictions, explanations and understanding. The outcomes of the study are checked for accuracy through validity and reliability tests (Creswell, 1994; Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

Several authors have preferred to acknowledge these two paradigms as two contrasting philosophical traditions: the epistemology of social-constructionism to refer to the qualitative paradigm; and the epistemology of positivism to refer to the quantitative paradigm (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002, Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

4.2.2 Positivism

In management and psychology research, most studies have historically been positivist in nature, although recently a number of alternative methods have found favour (Feist, 2006; Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Mitroff and Churchman, 1992; Thietart, 2001; Thomas; 2003). Positivism has been a predominant mainstream paradigm, with the origin of positivism being traced back to Auguste Comte, the French philosopher, in the nineteenth century (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Positivist researchers have always believed that there are general laws that govern

social phenomena and a proposition is meaningful only if it can be proved by rigorous scientific methods (Burawoy et al., 2005; Mayhall, 2002).

The main phase of this research will use a quantitative approach with positivism as the social science epistemology. There are number of reasons for this decision. The nature of the research problem being studied is crucial in determining whether a research should be predominantly quantitative or qualitative (Creswell, 1994). The focus of this research will be to study the consumer behaviour of acculturating British Indians across different acculturation categories. The study will also capture their wider ranging demographic profiles in terms of age, income, educational level, gender, nationality, religion, length of stay in the UK, generation and job type. A study of such breadth is possible only when the main phase of the research is quantitative. Moreover, the paradigm of a research study is usually coherent with the paradigms of previous studies in the same field (Krauss, 2005). The vast majority of previous studies (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Navas et al., 2007; Phinney et al., 1990) in this field have adopted a positivist approach.

A large body of research on acculturation and its relationship with consumer behaviour already exists. Consequently, this study is able to begin by formulating hypotheses based on a literature review, which can then be tested using a wider quantitative study. Such an approach is in keeping with the nature of quantitative studies, wherein the design of the research is 'static', the hypotheses are formulated on the basis of the existing body of literature, and generalisations of the study lead to predictions, explanations and understanding.

4.2.3 Combining qualitative and quantitative methods

There is ongoing debate about the efficacy of particular methodologies. However, neither the qualitative nor the quantitative approach can be said to be superior to the other. As Arbnor and Bjerke (1997, p. 5) suggest:

You can never empirically or logically determine the best approach. This can only be done reflectively by considering a situation to be studied and your opinion of life. This also means that even if you believe that one approach is more interesting or rewarding than another, we as authors of this book do not want to rank one approach above another. In fact, we cannot on any general ground. The only thing we can do is to try to make explicit the special characteristics on which the various approaches are based.

Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) emphasise that it cannot be argued that one approach is better than the other, but that the approach which is used should offer the best prospect of answering a particular research question.

Although positivism has been the mainstream paradigm in management research and psychology, it is not now uncommon for researchers to use more than one approach. The combining of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a research is referred to as multimethod (Punch, 1998). Under his recommendations for 'eleven ways of combining qualitative and quantitative research', Punch (1998) reiterated that a qualitative phase often smoothes the progress of quantitative research. Thus a

researcher can use qualitative methods, such as interviews or focus groups, to identify key issues, and refine or build parts of a questionnaire which will aid the construction of a more robust research instrument for a quantitative survey (Blaxter et al., 2001).

This research will use dyad interviews and focus groups in the preliminary qualitative phase in order to aid the development of the questionnaire to be used in the main survey. Thus this research will use both qualitative and quantitative methods, involving exploratory (preliminary qualitative) and confirmatory (mainly quantitative) phases of study. The qualitative phase will improve the content validity of the items in the questionnaire (Malhotra, 2004) and the quantitative phase will be used to collect data, test hypotheses and refine the framework presented following the literature review.

4.3 Research Design

The main research question is to consider whether acculturation affects the brand preferences of British Indians. Having presented the research question, it is necessary to identify a research framework that is suitable for answering the question. The framework for conducting research is known as the 'research design'. Balnaves and Caputi (2001), Bryman (2001) and Churchill (1995), amongst others, have written about three types of research designs relevant to social sciences: exploratory, descriptive and causal.

Exploratory research design is useful in discovering ideas or insights. It is often used to gain greater understanding of the issues concerned, when little is known about them at the time of the research (Churchill, 1995). This design can be used for a study in a new area or to develop and refine a research instrument such as a questionnaire (Balnaves and Caputi, 2001). It usually starts with a set of vague problem statements and rarely uses detailed questionnaires. Exploratory research is generally applied as an initial phase of study that is often a precursor to descriptive research (Churchill, 1995; Ferber et al., 1964). Literature search and focus groups can both be used in exploratory studies.

A descriptive research design is one of the most commonly used. This design relies on previous knowledge of the subject being researched and starts with the formulation of specific hypotheses. These hypotheses help to describe a relationship, typically between an independent and a dependent variable. The nature of the relationship is then inferred from the empirical findings. However, it is important to note that causality cannot be established when using this research design. This is because it is not possible to account for all likely explanations while inferring the relationship between the two variables (Churchill, 1995). In contrast to exploratory research design, descriptive research design is more rigid. The research questions, hypotheses, methods and the data analysis techniques are set up prior to the collection of data (Ferber et al., 1964). Since the focus in this type of design is to draw inferences from the relationship between two variables, great importance is attached to obtaining a representative sample.

There are two types of descriptive research designs, namely longitudinal and cross-sectional. Longitudinal research design involves measuring variables repeatedly over a period of time. Since this type of research can capture the effect of time, the depth of examination of a particular phenomenon is enriched (Churchill, 1995). Cross-sectional design obtains data on the variables at a single point in time and emphasises the representativeness of the sample to the population. This research design uses quantitative data that are normally collected using questionnaires. The data collected are examined for association and relationships between the variables (Bryman, 2001; Churchill, 1995).

In causal research design, all extraneous variables are held constant and the independent variable is manipulated in order to measure changes on the dependent variables as a result of this operation. This is a truly scientific procedure, which is capable of establishing causal relationships (Churchill, 1995). For this reason, this research design is often referred to as experimental.

The current research started with a detailed literature review which led to the formulation of the hypotheses. Since the knowledge developed was to be based on empirical testing of the relationship between the variables based on these hypotheses, a descriptive research design was considered most appropriate. Given the constraints associated with completing the research within a specified time period using a limited budget, cross-sectional research design was chosen over longitudinal design.

The research is carried out in two phases. The first phase is a preliminary qualitative investigation using focus groups, followed by the main quantitative phase involving a large-scale survey.

The subsequent sections will explain the detail of the two phases and cover the methodological elements and the statistical tools that will be used.

4.4 Preliminary questionnaire development

The preliminary questionnaire comprises three sections: Section 1 to measure the acculturation category of the respondents; Section 2 to examine the brand preferences of respondents; and Section 3 to capture the demographics of the respondents.

4.4.1 Section 1: Measuring the acculturation category of respondents

An instrument to classify respondents into the various categories of acculturation is used in this research. Section 3.5.3 of Chapter Three has explored in detail the scales mentioned in the literature and has established the reasons why this study will use the Cultural Life Style Inventory (CLSI). This scale designed by Mendoza (1989) measures categories of acculturation as against most other scales which measure levels of assimilation. Table 4.4 provides the list of questions in the original CLSI questionnaire and Table 4.5 gives the response options in the questionnaire to each of the questions. This is a 29-item scale which has twenty one behavioural questions and eight attitudinal questions. The behavioural questions cover behaviour, values

and preferences, and are largely focused on (i) intra-family language; (ii) extra-family language; (iii) social affiliation and activities; and (iv) cultural familiarity and activities. The attitudinal questions are mostly based on cultural identification and pride. The scale was developed by Mendoza (1989) to measure the acculturation of Mexican Americans and thus has references to Spanish language. The CLSI scale has response alternatives corresponding to the three acculturation categories. For example, the question ‘What language do you use when you speak with your parents?’ has response options of ‘(a) only or (b) mostly in Spanish’ for the separation category; ‘(c) mostly or (d) only in English’ for the assimilation category; and ‘(e) both in Spanish and English about equally’ for the integration category.

Table 4.4 The CLSI questions

1	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>grandparents</u> ?
2	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>parents</u> ?
3	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>brothers</u> and <u>sisters</u> ?
4	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>spouse</u> or <u>person</u> you <u>live with</u> ?
5	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>children</u> ?
6	What language do you use when you speak with your <u>closest friends</u> ?
7	What kind of <u>records</u> , <u>tapes</u> , or <u>compact discs</u> (CDs) do you own?
8	What kind of <u>radio</u> stations do you listen to?
9	What kind of <u>television</u> stations do you watch?
10	What kind of <u>newspapers</u> and <u>magazines</u> do you read?
11	In what language do you <u>pray</u> ?
12	In what language are the <u>jokes</u> with which you are familiar?
13	What kind of <u>foods</u> do you typically eat <u>at home</u> ?
14	At what kind of <u>restaurants</u> do you typically eat?
15	What is the ethnic background of your <u>closest friends</u> ?
16	What is the ethnic background of the people you have <u>dated</u> ?
17	When you go to <u>social functions</u> such as parties, dances, picnics or sports events, what is the ethnic background of the people (including your family members) that you typically go with?
18	What is the ethnic makeup of the <u>neighborhood</u> where you live?
19	Which <u>national anthem</u> do you know the words to?
20	Which <u>national</u> or <u>cultural heritage</u> do you feel <u>most proud of</u> ?
21	What types of national or cultural holidays do you typically celebrate?
22	What is the ethnic background of the <u>movie stars</u> and <u>popular singers</u> that you <u>most admire</u> ?
23	If you had a choice, what is the ethnic background of the person that you would <u>marry</u> ?
24	If you had <u>children</u> , what types of <u>names</u> would you give them?
25	If you had children, in what language would you <u>teach</u> them to <u>read</u> , <u>write</u> and <u>speak</u> ?
26	Which culture and way of life do you believe is <u>responsible</u> for the <u>social problems</u> (such as poverty, teenage pregnancies and gangs) found in some Mexican-American communities in the U.S.?
27	At what kinds of <u>stores</u> do you <u>typically shop</u> ?
28	How do you prefer to be <u>identified</u> ?
29	Which culture and way of life would you say has had the <u>most positive influence</u> on your life?

Source: adapted from Mendoza, R. H. (1989), p. 377

Table 4.5 The response options in the CLSI questionnaire

a	Only Spanish
b	More Spanish than English
c	More English than Spanish
d	Only English
e	Both Spanish and English about equally
f	Only or mostly another language (specify_____)
g	Question not applicable

The instrument operates by categorising respondents into three acculturation categories on the basis of their answers to the 29 CLSI questions. Individuals are scored and allocated to acculturation categories on the basis of their highest numbers of answers in a particular response category. For example, a respondent who answered (a) or (b) seventeen times, (e) five times and (c) or (d) seven times can be categorised in the separation category. Mendoza's original recommendation on scoring was that there should be a statistical difference between the category with the highest number of answers and the category with the second highest number of answers. However, this method proved to be too stringent, resulting in a small number of respondents being classified into the acculturation categories (Magana et al., 1996; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

For the purpose of this research the instrument was adapted for use with British Indians. This is discussed in greater detail in Section 4.6.1. The adapted CLSI was pretested on 50 British Indians and the responses were coded. On using Mendoza's original classification method, only 23% of respondents could be classified. The researcher contacted Mendoza and was advised by him to classify respondents on the basis of their highest numbers of answers in each category and not to seek a statistical difference between the highest and the next highest categories. Mendoza also recommended that in instances where the respondent's top two response category percentages were tied, such a respondent's record should be removed from the analysis, as these respondents do not exclusively belong to any one category.

4.4.2 Section 2: Respondents' brand preference

The next step was to build the section on brand preference. In classifying the brands into 'host' and 'ethnic', it would have been inappropriate to use the 'country of

manufacture' or 'the country of origin' as the distinguishing feature. The 'manufactured in' label has been blurred by the growth of multinational companies and the emergence of global outsourcing (Ahmed et al., 2004). Thus, to classify a brand as 'British' or 'Indian' on the basis of the country of manufacture or origin would not have been appropriate. In order to overcome this issue it was decided to use focus groups to help identify brands which were perceived as being 'ethnic' and 'host'. This way, the classification into 'ethnic' and 'host' brands would reflect the position these products occupied in the British Indian culture.

In order to generate a list of brands for consideration, the researcher, who is a woman of Indian origin living in Britain, spent time with a fellow researcher from the indigenous British population. Working in conjunction, the researchers jointly visited supermarkets to identify possible comparable brand pairs (host and ethnic) that might be used in a list to be shared in subsequent focus groups. This allowed the researcher to look at the brands from both the 'ethnic' and 'host' perspectives. The researcher also visited some specialist independent Indian stores with a consumer marketing professional to identify additional comparable brands for certain host brands identified by the indigenous British colleague during the earlier supermarket visit. This led to a list of comparable 'ethnic' and 'host' brands which was shared at a later stage with the focus groups and in dyad interviews to arrive at the final list to be used in the research. This is discussed in greater detail in Section 4.6.2.

While each pair of brands (ethnic and host) in each category, aims to satisfy the same basic needs, the meanings and level of importance associated with these options are likely to be markedly different for the ethnic and the host populations. Bristow and Asquith (1999) confirmed that the differences in the lifestyles of

various cultural groups, which in the current study relate to the acculturation categories, is reflected in the level of importance that each group attach to the brand names. This implies it is appropriate to use brand pairs containing ethnic and host options to study differing preferences between acculturation categories.

4.4.3 Section 3: Demographics of the respondents

This section considers the demographic items which will be captured in the survey. This will help identify the variety of respondent characteristics so that these can be considered in relation to the acculturation category and brand preferences.

Questions relate to respondents' age, gender, place of birth, nationality, length of stay in the UK, education, job, total gross household income and their generational status in the UK. Total household income is included since Indian culture is collectivistic (Hofstede, 1980b) so that households often operate on the basis of pooled incomes.

Having developed the three sections of the questionnaire namely: (1) section 1 for measuring the acculturation category of respondents; (2) section 2 for inviting the respondents' brand preference options; and (3) section 3 for capturing the demographic of the respondents, the next section will consider how these parts of the questionnaire were refined following the use of focus groups and dyads.

4.5 Focus groups and dyads

Morgan (1988) stresses the value of focus groups either as self-contained methods of data collection or as components of a larger research program. This research will use

focus groups to develop the survey questionnaire and receive feedback on other aspects of the research.

To understand how to run focus groups and to get the maximum benefit out of this research method, the researcher attended a professional live focus group session. The session was conducted by Mr. Peter Jackson from Adsearch Limited, an experienced Market Researcher with over 20 years' experience in qualitative and quantitative research, and a member of the UK's Market Research Society. Objectives of the focus groups subsequently carried out in this research were to:

1. check whether the CLSI questionnaire needed any amendment when used on British Indian respondents;
2. find out whether the 'demographics' section of the questionnaire included the necessary details;
3. invite participants to classify the identified pairs of brands into 'ethnic' and 'host' groups;
4. explore participants' reactions, concerns and suggestions to an e-mail format of the questionnaire and also assess their openness to this format;
5. test the concept of 'public' and 'private' brands amongst the participants i.e. whether 'ethnic' and 'host' brand preferences differed when in public from when in private;
6. and find out participants' views on whether survey respondents would expect to be compensated for their time, including a discussion about possible incentives.

4.5.1 Designing the focus group and dyad compositions

Since this study will identify three acculturation categories, three focus groups – one each for each category were initially planned. This reflects the fact that it would be inappropriate to put people from two different acculturation categories together in one focus group. Such an approach would run the risk of one group’s views overshadowing the other. Also, in the interests of cultural sensitivity it was decided not to include men and women in the same focus group (Market Research Society, 2008). In order to obtain data from men and women from across the three acculturation categories, a total of six focus groups would be needed. However, taking into account the primary aim of gaining access to these acculturation categories coupled with limitations of resources, it was decided that three focus groups would be run with members of one gender. The other three would be run using dyad interviews involving members of the opposite gender to the one already used in the focus groups. Dyads consist of two participants, making them smaller than regular focus groups. With only two participants, there is potential for greater observational opportunity, enabling greater emphasis on the topic (Edmunds, 1999). Moreover, Greenbaum (1998) has reiterated that dyads can be effective if used selectively. The following combination of focus groups and dyads was employed, as summarised in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Summary of focus groups and dyads composition

Acculturation Category	Focus Groups	Conducted on	Dyads	Conducted on
Separation	Females (6)	12/07/2008	Males (2)	02/08/2008
Assimilation	Females (6)	18/07/2008	Males (2)	03/08/2008
Integration	Males (6)	21/08/2008	Females (2)	29/08/2008

Having discussed how the focus groups and dyads were designed and having presented the composition of these, the next section will explain how the participants were recruited.

4.5.2 Recruitment for the focus groups

A pre-focus group recruitment pack was prepared that included a covering letter, the CLSI questionnaire which was amended for the British Indian population (see Section 4.6.1) and a consent form for participation and audio-recording. A copy of the pre-focus group recruitment pack is shown in Appendix I.

The pre-focus group recruitment pack was distributed within the British Indian community using a form of snowballing technique. Certain individuals in the community were handed these packs, who then passed them on to others that they knew. These individuals also collected the whole packs duly filled in by the others. The returned packs were sorted for those individuals who wished to participate in the focus groups or dyads and had also given consent for audio-recording. Individuals who satisfied these two conditions were then scored for determining the acculturation category of the respondent. The scoring method used has been explained in Section 4.4.1 above.

4.5.3 Focus group discussion guide

The focus group discussion gives an outline of what the moderator or researcher proposes to cover during the focus groups and dyads (Edmunds, 1999). The discussion guide for this research is based on the focus group objectives described in Section 4.5. The content of the guide was scrutinised by three academics with

relevant expertise and by one individual from the consumer marketing profession.

Table 4.7 presents the refined focus group discussion guide.

Table 4.7 Focus group discussion guide

Topic	Key points discussed	Duration (Minutes)
Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Welcome: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> introduction of the researcher and participants issuing of name tags and getting acquainted explaining briefly the purpose of the research. Setting the ground rules by explaining: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the role of moderator about audio-recording, data protection and confidentiality that there was no right or wrong answers, only a discussion the need to avoid private conversations. 	5
CLSI section of questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What had been the participants' reaction to this questionnaire, which they had filled in, when included in the pre-focus group recruitment pack. Which questions and options needed amending, adding or deleting. 	10
Brand preference section of questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participants shown 27 sets of brand cards containing ethnic and host brands (see Table 4.8). What was the participants' familiarity with the brands? Participants to discuss whether they regarded these brands as ethnic or host. Was the purpose of this exercise understood and were the instructions clear? Did the participants feel there was sufficient demarcation between the ethnic and the host brands? Did the participants consider any pairs of brands should be added, deleted or revised or did they find any difficulty in answering any options? 	20
Demographic section of the questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did the participants understand the questions properly and was the English simple to decipher? Were the participants comfortable with giving out the information requested? Did participants feel that any questions or options should be added, deleted or revised? 	15
Discussion about the possibility of an e-mail format questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of participants' openness to an e-mail format rather than a paper format questionnaire. Did participants have any concerns regarding an e-mail format? What were participants' suggestions about this mode of 	5

	administering the questionnaire?	
Discussion about the concept of public and private brands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did the participants' brand preference vary depending on where the brands were used – in their private lives or in public? • Participants' views on this topic in general. 	5
Discussion about compensating participation in the survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did the participants feel that it was important for respondents to be compensated for completing the questionnaire? • If so, what sort of incentives would be appropriate? 	5
Closing comments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any additional comments? • Thanking the participants. • Reminding participants to collect their free gift in recompense for their involvement in the focus group or dyad. 	5

4.5.4 Moderation of the focus groups

It is well documented in the focus group literature that a crucial aspect for ensuring a successful focus group or dyad is to select the right moderator. A moderator should ideally know the field of research well and also have the skill to moderate the group. It can be advantageous to have a moderator who has professional marketing experience as well (Edmunds, 1999). The researcher has previous relevant marketing experience, is skilled in analysis and also knows the research well. Although she had prior experience of focus groups, these skills were updated by attending a professionally run live focus group. The focus group session she attended was conducted by a market research professional, Mr. Peter Jackson from Adsearch Ltd. The researcher was able to discuss with Mr. Jackson the best practice for conducting focus groups, and also to ask specific questions in relation to their use in the current research. This gave her the confidence to act as a professional moderator herself for the focus groups and dyads.

Sometimes, an observer can be used in addition to the moderator, particularly if the moderator has to cover a detailed topic that includes a hands-on exercise (Edmunds, 1999). If the observer is an experienced person from the marketing profession, this can be invaluable for the moderator in providing feedback as to whether the focus group was conducted thoroughly and to make suggestions for improvements. In accordance with this suggestion, the researcher-cum-moderator had one marketing professional as an observer for the first focus group session. This helped the researcher to obtain some constructive feedback for ensuring good quality focus group sessions.

To summarise, this section has explained how the focus group or dyad participants were recruited, how the composition of the groups was designed and how the groups were run. The next section will consider the development of the final questionnaire based on the analysis of these focus groups and dyads.

4.6 Questionnaire development based on focus group analysis

For the focus groups and dyads, the group is the fundamental unit of analysis, with the analysis progressing in a group-by-group manner. One approach for analysing focus group data is to develop a qualitative ethnographic summary (Morgan, 1988). This approach was deemed sufficient for the purpose of these focus groups and dyads, which was to build or refine the questionnaire for the large-scale survey. Techniques used for the ethnographic summary include identifying comments that are frequently mentioned, taking into account messages with opposing ideas, which are recognised through body language, and also looking for consensus among the majority of the group (Edmunds, 1999). In this study, these techniques were applied

to analyse the focus groups and dyads, and on this basis, different sections of the questionnaire were developed or refined, as discussed in the subsequent subsections.

4.6.1 Developing Section 1 of the questionnaire–CLSI

CLSI was originally developed for use amongst Mexican Americans, so that some of the answer options referred to ‘Spanish’. The word ‘Spanish’ was replaced by the word ‘Indian’ in all of the places where it occurred. Based on inputs from the focus groups, corrections were made for certain terminologies. For example, a definition of the term ‘Indian language’ was developed for the final version of the questionnaire. This addressed the issue of British Indians having different mother tongues, such as Gujarati, Punjabi, Hindi, and so forth. A copy of the CLSI questionnaire as adapted for use with British Indians is included in Section 1 of the final questionnaire shown in Appendix II.

Options for the questions in the CLSI were made uniform by providing seven response options for all 29 questions. Care was taken to maintain the same order in the questions so that they all made a sensible progression. For questions 7, 8, 9 and 10, for option six, the questions were changed to ask respondents to specify the language of records, tapes, DVDs, CDs, radio stations, television stations, newspapers and magazines. This was felt to be more specific by most focus group respondents. For questions 23, 24 and 25, the wording was modified to allow respondents to reflect whether they would or already had behaved in this way. For example, for question 23, which is, ‘If you had a choice, what is the ethnic background of the person that you would marry?’ was modified to ‘If you had a choice, what is the ethnic background of the person that you would or did marry?’. For question 26, the options ‘a’ and ‘b’ were swapped for ‘c’ and ‘d’ and were then

re-ordered accordingly to maintain uniformity amongst all questions so that scoring could be standardised.

4.6.2 Developing Section 2 of the questionnaire–Brand preference

For each product category, the participants in the focus groups and dyads were presented with several brand options. The objective was to identify a comparable host and ethnic brand for a number of product and service categories. Participants were invited to identify the brands they considered to be ‘ethnic’ and ‘host’. They were also asked to comment on the specific brand names that were presented to them. Table 4.8 summarises the responses of the participants. Based on these responses, the list was sharpened and narrowed down to a set of twelve comparable ethnic and host brands across several product and service categories. This final list, as used in the research, is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Summary of brands presented and participants’ responses

	Ethnic and host brands presented	Participants’ responses and options refined
1	Air India/Jet Airways versus British Airways	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Jet Airways and British airways were deemed comparable• Air India was considered inferior and not part of the consideration set for most
2	Bollywood versus Hollywood	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Brands were well understood• Seen as ethnic and host
3	ICICI Bank versus Barclays/Lloyds TSB/HSBC	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• ICICI was well known as an ethnic brand• Barclays was most clearly understood as a host brand• HSBC had South East Asian connotations
4	Pride/KTC Cooking Oil versus Flora Cooking Oil	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pride was seen as an ethnic brand and Flora as a host brand• KTC was not well known
5	Sony/Zee TV versus Sky TV/ITV/	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Zee TV was seen as an ethnic brand and

	Channel 4	ITV as a host brand. This was a unanimous view
6	Shahnaz Husain cosmetics versus Decleor/Daniel Ryman cosmetics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The brands were not familiar This category was dropped altogether
7	Star/Taj Tours versus Thompson Travels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Star Tours was better known as an ethnic tour operator Thompson Travels was well known as a host brand
8	Meswak/Dabur Red/Vicco Vajradanti Toothpaste versus Colgate Mint toothpaste/Kingfisher Mint toothpaste	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Herbal toothpaste category was not familiar There was confusion about these brands This category was dropped altogether
9	Parle-G/Marie Biscuits versus McVities Biscuits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parle-G was well known as an ethnic brand McVities was well known as a host brand
10	Chandrika/Mysore Sandal/Margo Soap versus Yardley/Pears/Dove Soap	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mysore Sandal was understood as an ethnic brand Dove was clearly understood as a host brand
11	Rubicon/Suncrest/Enjoy Juice versus Ribena Juice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rubicon was seen as an ethnic brand and Ribena as a host brand, and this was seen to be the ideal pair
12	Maggi Two Minutes Noodles versus Sharwood Noodles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It was perceived that both brands were of ethnic nature Some felt that Maggi was wheat noodles and Sharwoods was rice noodles Due to the confusion, this category was dropped altogether
13	Shana/Taj/Kohinoor Frozen Food versus Bird's Eye/McCann/Linda McCartney's frozen food	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shana and Bird's Eye were seen as the most appropriate pair of ethnic and host brands of frozen foods
14	Sidhpur Sat Isabgul versus Senokot Isabgul	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most respondents were unfamiliar with the category On knowing that these were laxative products, there was much discomfort about answering the questions This category was dropped altogether
15	Moov Pain Reliever versus Deep Heat-Heat Rub Pain Reliever	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This category was dropped altogether, as there was no distinction between the brands and both were seen as host brands (even though Moov is an Indian brand)
16	Krack-Healing Cracks versus Scholl-Healing Cracks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There was no familiarity with the category or the brands and hence this category

		was dropped altogether
17	Daria/Heera/Pride Olive Oil versus Filippo Berio/Bertolli/Napolini Olive Oil	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The pair Pride and Filippo Berio was seen as the ideal pair of ethnic and host brands
18	KTC/Khanum/Lakes/Plough Pure Butter Ghee versus Anchor butter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It was felt that this list had brands from two different categories–Butter and Butter Ghee (Indian clarified butter) Anchor, while not of Indian origin, was seen as an Indian brand Due to the above perceptions, this category was dropped altogether
19	Laziza/Rajah/Kohinoor Garlic Paste versus GIA Garlic Puree.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No one knew of the GIA brand. No other host brand could be identified for this category This category was dropped altogether
20	KTC/NATCO Coconut Milk versus BART/Maggi Coconut Milk	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Coconut milk as a category was seen as an ethnic category and participants could not see any of these brands as host This category was dropped altogether
21	Kolak/Garden/Haldiram Crisps versus Walkers/Smiths/Golden Wonder Crisps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> While most of these brand names were well known, none of them were seen as either ethnic or host For the above reason, this category was dropped altogether
22	Zandu Balm versus Tiger Balm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both these brands were seen as ethnic and hence this category was dropped altogether
23	No marks-Fairness/Vicco Turmeric/Pharma-clinic Cream versus Witch/Daniel Ryman Blemish stick/Clinique-even better skin tone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many participants had not heard of some of these brands and some could not tell which were ethnic and which were host This category was dropped altogether
24	Pride Lemon Juice versus JIF Lemon Juice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> While Pride was a known brand, no one had heard of JIF This category was dropped altogether
25	Tilda Rice versus Uncle Ben's Rice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both brand were well known and Tilda was seen as an ethnic brand, while Uncle Ben's was a host brand
26	Rediff/Indiatimes/Shaaadi.com versus msn/Yahoo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It was felt that the brands were not strictly comparable Different websites were used for different purposes and a pairing was not seen as appropriate here This category was dropped altogether
27	BBC Asian/Excel/Sabras/Sunrise/Kismet Radio versus Virgin/Capital/	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The participants observed that most of the radio stations had limited geographic

	Heart Radio	<p>reach and thus a comparison was not possible</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This category was dropped altogether
--	-------------	--

This exercise led to the finalisation of the comparable brand list as shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Final list of brands

Ethnic Brands	Host Brands
Jet Airways	British Airways
Bollywood	Hollywood
ICICI Bank	Barclays Bank
KTC Cooking Oil	Flora Cooking Oil
Zee TV	ITV
Star Tours	Thompson Travels
Parle-G Biscuits	McVities Biscuits
Mysore Sandal Soap	Dove Soap
Rubicon Juice	Ribena Juice
Shana Frozen Food	Bird’s Eye Frozen Food
Pride Olive Oil	Filipo Berio Olive Oil
Tilda Rice	Uncle Ben’s Rice

There are two major components of attitude that affect an individual’s view of a brand: the perceptive component and the evaluative component (Lee and Um, 1992). The construct of ‘involvement’ is related to ‘perception’ and the construct of ‘value’ is to do with ‘evaluation’. Antil (1984, p. 204) defined ‘involvement’ as “the level of perceived importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus (or stimuli) within a specific situation”. It is not the brand itself which promotes involvement but the personal significance that an individual attaches to the brand that results in involvement (Antil, 1984; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005). There are two involvement experiences: ‘low involvement’ is characterised by a lack of personal

involvement and 'high involvement' is characterised by a high degree of personal involvement (Krugman, 1965). In contrast to the 'perceptive' component, which can be expressed in terms of 'involvement', one of the primary 'evaluative' criteria is based on the price of the brand (Lee and Um, 1992). This can be expressed as high and low value brands.

Taking into account notions of 'involvement' and 'value', the researcher carried out a further line of enquiry. Six participants, two (one male and one female) from each of the acculturation categories were involved. The meaning of 'involvement' and the meaning of 'value' were explained to these participants, who were then shown the final list of brands as seen in Table 4.9. The participants were then asked to identify which they perceived as high and low involvement brands based on the constructs that had been described to them. Analysis of their responses led to the identification of high involvement brands, low involvement brands, high value brands and low value brands, as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Brand classification based on attitude towards the brands

	Ethnic	Host
High involvement brands	Bollywood Zee TV	Hollywood ITV
Low involvement brands	KTC Cooking Oil Shana Frozen Food Mysore Sandal Soap	Flora Cooking Oil Bird's Eye Frozen Food Dove Soap
High value brands	Jet Airways ICICI Bank Star Tours	British Airways Barclays Bank Thompson Travels
Low value brands	Parle-G Biscuits Rubicon Juice	McVities Biscuits Ribena Juice

4.6.3 Developing Section 3 of the questionnaire–Demographics

Based on feedback from the focus groups, some minor amendments were made to the demographic questions in the questionnaire. For example, Question 9 which focuses on highest educational qualification initially had both UK and Indian equivalent qualifications. The focus groups revealed that many British Indians have moved to the UK from East Africa, with the result that equivalent qualifications from East Africa were added.

Overall, respondents felt that they understood the questions well, the English was simple to decipher and they all felt comfortable in giving out the information requested, including certain specifics like household income.

4.6.4 Other discussions in the focus groups

The focus group participants were comfortable with using an e-mail format and gave suggestions for the subject line for the e-mail. Participants were specifically probed on whether they understood what was meant by ‘a brand that they would consistently prefer to buy’ in Section 2 of the questionnaire. This was clearly

understood by the respondents and this was articulated as the brands they would prefer most often. On the subject of recompense for time spent on answering such a questionnaire, the consensus was that this would certainly help.

This section has gone into the details of developing each section of the survey questionnaire based on the focus groups’ and dyads’ content analysis. Table 4.11 shows the structure of the questionnaire thus developed. A corresponding questionnaire with the question numbers is included in Appendix II.

Table 4.11 Structure of the questionnaire

Question	Questionnaire Section	To be used for
Covering letter		
SECTION ONE		
Q1-Q29	Cultural Life Style Inventory	Measuring the acculturation category of the respondents
SECTION TWO		
Q1a-Q1l	Brand preferences	Obtaining the brand preference patterns of the respondents, namely ethnic or host, for the 12 sets of brand pairs.
Q2a-Q2e	Decision maker questions	Investigating whether the brand decision makers were different from those who were not, on their brand preferences
SECTION THREE		
Q1-18	Demographic information	Capturing the demographic details of the respondents, namely, age, gender, place of birth, nationality, length of stay in the UK, religion followed, educational attainment, total household income, generational status, etc.

Having discussed the development of the questionnaire to be used for the research, this chapter goes on to give an overview of Phase II, the quantitative phase of the research. Table 4.12 summarises the components of this phase, the options exercised and the reasons for the same. The table also shows the relevant sections where the topics are discussed in greater detail.

Table 4.12 Overview of Phase II of research: Large-scale survey

	Option/s chosen	Reasons for choice
Questionnaire pre-testing (Sections 4.7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Academic experts• Questionnaire design expert• Marketing professionals• Potential respondents	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pre-testing of the questionnaire using experts and potential respondents helps in identifying flaws and thus prevents any irreversible pitfalls at a later stage
Survey (Section 4.8)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Online format	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This format of administering helps in obtaining large samples from different locations very quickly• The online format is also less expensive, easy to use and is more accurate than its paper equivalent
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Database from Tilda Ltd was used to identify British Indians	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This database from Tilda Ltd was one of the largest databases of British Indian consumers covering a wide geographical area, and the sampling frame was finite
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Probability sampling technique	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This sampling technique makes it possible for each respondent to have a known chance of inclusion in the sample thus making the sample more representative
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pilot surveys	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pilot surveys not only help in identifying flaws in the questionnaire but also indicate any potential problems that may arise with the administration of the questionnaire. They also give an indication of the response rate
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Minimum required sample size of 254 respondents	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Being a quantitative study, a statistically determined minimum sample size ensures that the analytical techniques can be used in such a way that the sampling error and confidence in standard error are within acceptable levels
		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• It also indicates the approximate minimum number of questionnaires that need to be sent out in the main survey.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Main survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Main survey uses the refined questionnaire to collect data from the respondents
Ethics approval (Sections 4.9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• HPMEC approval for Phases I and II of research	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ethics approval ensures that research ethics are adhered to, like maintaining anonymity of responses, compliance with Data Protection Act, 1998 and ensuring proper consent from respondents
Reliability and validity (Sections 4.10)	Reliability: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Test-retest• Cronbach's alpha	Reliability and validity tests are used to assess the measurement quality of the research <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Test-retest-to measure the instrument's consistency across time

	Validity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content validity • Construct validity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cronbach's alpha—to measure internal consistency of the instrument • Content validity—to assess how well the content of instrument represents the task at hand • Construct validity—to check how well the constructs of the instrument work in practice
Research bias (Sections 4.11)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sample design error • Measurement design error • Hospitality error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Checking sample design errors helps assess noncoverage, overcoverage, population definition and respondent selection errors • Measurement design error checks help identify interviewer, measurement instrument, non-response and response errors • To check whether respondents answer to please the researcher

4.7 Questionnaire pretesting

Sletto (1940) explains that pretesting is a process of trial and error, wherein successful trials are reiterated and errors are removed before the questionnaire is finalised. The researcher pretested the questionnaire with two academic experts, a questionnaire design expert, two people from the marketing profession and two potential respondents. This enabled minor mistakes to be identified before they could cause serious drawbacks. For example, the figure for one hundred thousand pounds was to be written as £100,000 and not £1,00,000. Also, the income bands shown under question 12 of the demographic section should not overlap and therefore would be written as £10,001-20,000 and £20,001-40,000; and not as £10,000-20,000 and £20,000-40,000. The technique suggested by Sletto (1940) to increase the reliability and validity of responses by detecting those questions or question formulations that were likely to produce the least reliable responses was therefore applied. Lastly, the pretest also recorded the time taken to complete the survey and ascertained whether it was reasonable.

4.8 Survey

Having pretested the questionnaire, the next step was to action the survey. This involved selecting the format of the questionnaire as explained in Section 4.8.1, identifying British Indians discussed in Section 4.8.2, and the description of the sampling procedure in Section 4.8.3. Furthermore, Section 4.8.4 examines the data collection process followed in the research, which included pilot surveys, calculation of the minimum required sample size and the main survey.

4.8.1 Survey method: Paper versus online format

The researcher needed to decide whether to use a paper or an online questionnaire format. A review of the literature revealed that an online format had several advantages over a paper format. However, some precautions are needed before embarking on an online survey.

Research conducted by Huang (2006) concluded that there were no significant differences in results between print and web surveys when posing questions with closed formats. These findings are consistent with the results of King and Miles (1995). Moreover, Morrel-Samuels (2003) states that an online survey can be inexpensive, easy to use, fast, well received by respondents and more accurate than its print equivalent. Web surveys also allow large samples to be obtained from remote locations. Kiesler and Sproull (1986) observed that online surveys are returned more quickly than paper versions. Furthermore, respondents who answer online surveys make fewer completion mistakes on close-ended questions. Kiesler and Sproull (1986) also noted that fewer online survey respondents fail to complete one or more questions compared with print versions. That respondents are more

likely to be self-absorbed and uninhibited when answering online surveys has been confirmed by Kiesler et al. (1984).

Online surveys appear to have several benefits over print surveys. However, Huang (2006) argued that the most important issues for a web survey are for the participants' anonymity to be protected and also for the topic of the survey not to be particularly sensitive. Morrel-Samuels (2003) expresses concerns over the infinite sampling frames in web surveys. Schmidt (1997b) suggests using a database with a finite sample to get over the problem of controlling the sample and ensuring that access to it is restricted. Credibility of the website where the online survey is hosted is crucial. Fogg et al. (2001) suggest that for a website to be credible, the legitimacy of the organisation behind the website, ease of use and avoidance of commercial elements are important.

Based on the benefits of an online survey over a paper survey and keeping in mind the requirements to make an online survey effective and credible, the researcher arranged for the Open University Survey Department to host the questionnaire online.

4.8.2 Identifying British Indians for the research

In order to conduct a quantitative survey using the questionnaire developed, this study required a finite sample of British Indian names. Several options for obtaining potential British Indian respondent names were explored. The electoral roll was considered as an option. This had the advantage of generating a random sample, but there were also some disadvantages. Much time would have to be invested in identifying British Indian names based on surnames from the electoral roll. Also, the

electoral roll would include names only of those British Indians who were eligible and had registered to vote. Lastly, the process of collecting data would be expensive.

Using names from community centre databases (religious, educational, cultural) was explored as an option. While some institutions were open to the idea, others were reluctant to share names. Also, the risk with using databases of cultural or religious associations is that of selecting similar-minded people, so that the sample may not be representative of the general population.

Use of multiple sources to recruit respondents was also looked at. This would have involved advertisements in community specific press and radio stations, and recruiting at ethnic fairs, shows and community centres. However, this method had disadvantages too. The sampling frame in such an option would not be finite and it would not be possible to ascertain response rates. The concept of everybody having an equal chance of participation would not hold true. Also, multiple recruitment sources could elicit responses in completely different ways.

While exploring various options for getting British Indian names, the researcher came across Tilda Ltd., a UK based food company with a range of rice and rice-based product offerings. The Tilda brand has market leadership in the UK, both within the British Indian community and the wider mainstream population. This brand also has a wide distribution and very high penetration. The company has access to one of the largest databases of consumer names from the British Indian community. As part of their Corporate Social Responsibility agenda, Tilda Ltd. was open to contributing to research in higher educational establishments and was willing to share the database with the researcher on the following conditions:

- a) No breach of confidentiality would occur from the researcher and no data would be published that could identify persons from the database.
- b) Tilda Ltd. would not classify respondents by their ethnic origin. The researcher may use her own discretion to decide who from the database she would contact for her research.
- c) A copy of the final questionnaire to be used would be sent to Tilda Ltd. and a summary of the results would be made available to the company.

4.8.3 Sampling procedure

There are two broad types of sampling techniques: probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, each element has a known chance of being included in the sample. Under non-probability sampling on the other hand, the selection of sample elements is left to the discretion of the researcher (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005). The purpose of this research would be best served by a probability sample as this allows statistical assessment of the degree of sampling error. Also, probability sampling achieves sample group selection through an objective and specific process which minimises the researcher bias (Churchill, 1995). Thus a probability sampling technique was used in the research.

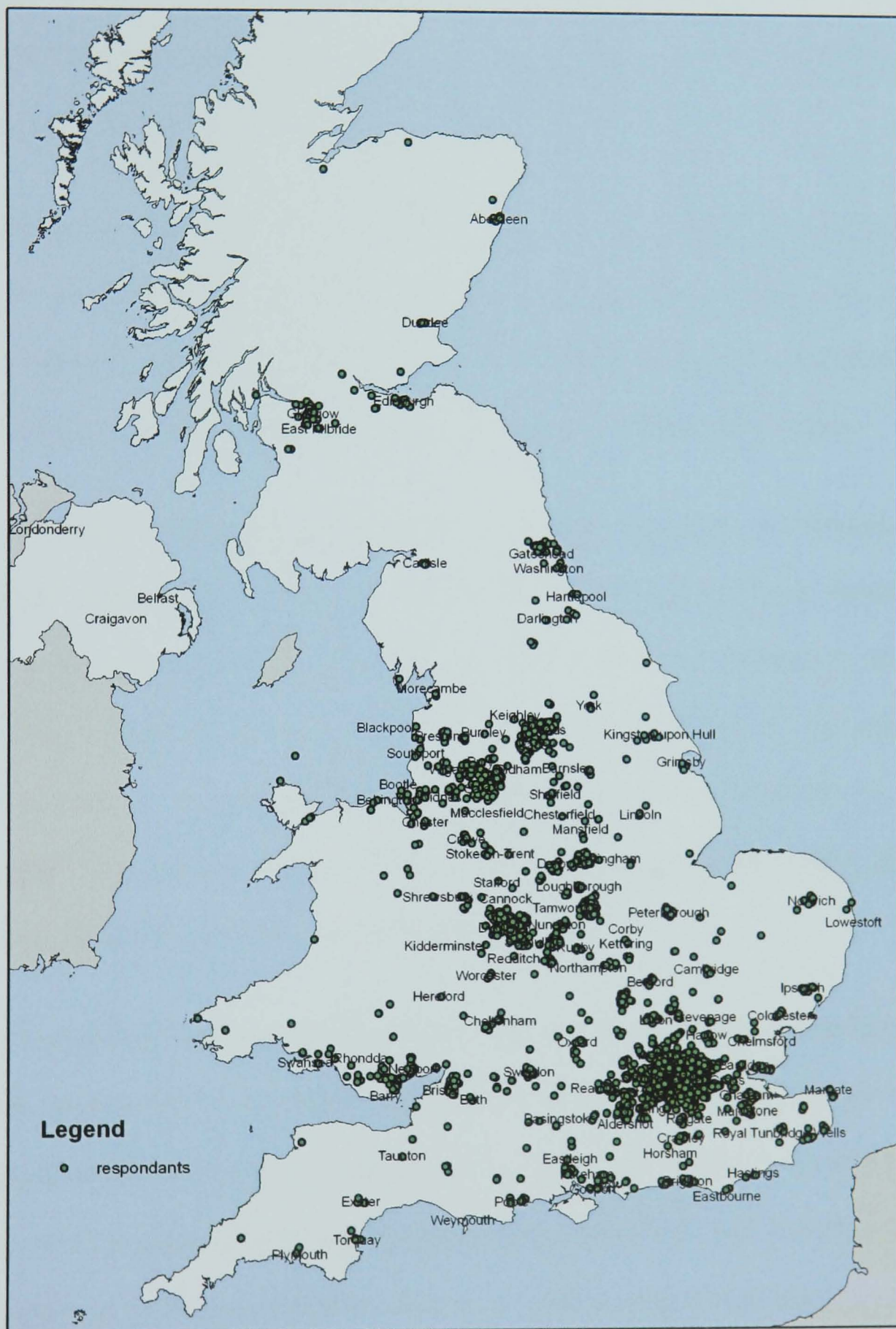
The database from Tilda Ltd. included 21,098 consumer names who had responded to a consumer promotion. As the promotion was on big bags of rice which are primarily purchased by British Indians, a large proportion of the respondents were likely to be of the required origin. Many respondents had given their e-mail address and some had consented to being contacted in future. The researcher needed to decide on a method for selecting British Indian individuals from the database. Himmelfarb et al. (1983) suggest a method for sampling by ethnic surname which

had the potential to be adapted. They chose distinctive Jewish names (DJNs) showing that a random sample of people with DJNs produced a fairly representative sample of American Jews. They also stated that this was a relatively inexpensive, efficient method of screening a population in order to obtain a representative sample. This method was also used by Lindridge (2001) in his research involving British Indians, when he screened for British White and British Indian sample population by using their surnames. In this study, the researcher screened British Indians from the database provided by Tilda Ltd. The method of screening for names by Indian surnames was used to generate a list of British Indian names from the database. The researcher's familiarity with Indian surnames made this exercise straightforward.

Starting with a list of 21,098 names, narrowing down to those who had given consent for future contact and had also provided an e-mail address, and then filtering by Indian surnames, an actionable sampling frame of 4152 British Indian names was obtained.

A geographical mapping exercise was undertaken using ARCGIS software to visually investigate the spread of the database in the UK, using postcodes of the addresses in the database. This is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Geographical spread of respondent addresses



As can be seen from this visual map, the database provided broad geographical coverage of areas in the UK.

4.8.4 Data collection

Once the sample elements are selected, the data need to be collected from them, based on the data collection method specified (Churchill, 1995). In this research, the data were collected by way of survey, using online questionnaires.

The researcher took care to make the content of the final questionnaire and covering letter as 'online friendly' as possible. The Open University's standardised colour and format was used for the questionnaire with the researcher focusing on determining the accuracy of the content and overall presentation of the online questionnaire.

Dillman (1978, 1998) explains the importance of 'personalisation' for obtaining a successful questionnaire response. The research followed this guidance, ensuring that the covering e-mail letter was personalised with the respondent's name. However, in the interest of anonymity, the responses were automatically captured by the data analysis software so that the individuals were not identifiable to the researcher. This method of data capture avoided the need for manual data input, which could have resulted in some transcription errors.

The covering letter had the definition for 'British Indians' to enable respondents to identify whether they were eligible to answer the questionnaire. In accordance with good practice for online surveys (Andrews et al., 2003), the covering letter also fully disclosed the purpose of the research, promised confidentiality and data protection and expressed researcher credibility. Ray et al. (2001) suggest that approximately 57% of online surveys promise respondents a short summary of the survey results, an approach which was adopted by the researcher in this case. The questionnaire was then set up for hosting online.

4.8.4.1 Pilot surveys

A systematic sample from the sampling frame resulted in the creation of a pilot database of 308 names. The pilot went live online on 7th January 2009. Respondent e-mails totalling 103 immediately bounced back, leaving the researcher with a starting sample size of 205 respondents. The subject line for the e-mails for the pilot was, ‘Please help Indian Community Research in the UK’. This subject line was checked to ensure it was SPAM free by the OU IT department. Three responses were received as a result of this initial mailing. A series of reminders were then sent as shown in Table 4.13

Table 4.13 The first pilot survey and the responses

	Date	Response
Pilot online	07/01/09	3
First Reminder	15/01/09	3
Second Reminder	21/01/09	3
Pilot Closed	29/01/09	Total responses: 9

The overall response rate for the pilot was very low: 4.39%. This was considered to possibly be as a result of the lack of personal incentive. The literature on incentives as a means of increasing response rate suggests that in some instances, these are necessary to encourage respondents to participate (Davis and Young, 2002; Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; Malhotra et al., 1996). According to Sax et al. (2003), online survey response rates are more specific to the population sampled than to any other factor. Similarly, Stratford et al. (2003) found that both Black and Indian minority groups are influenced by incentives in surveys.

Deutskens et al. (2004) claim that incentives such as vouchers or lucky draws are stronger than altruistic appeals such as charitable donations in increasing the response rate of online surveys. This is likely to be the case when questionnaires are

lengthy. The UK’s Ethnic Research Network (Market Research Society, 2008) suggests that researchers should consider piloting particular incentives prior to a research project to make sure that the incentives chosen are appropriate for the respondents.

Based on the above discussion, a further pilot was run which included a lucky draw for the ten latest Bollywood film DVDs as recompense for the participants. This was deemed an appropriate offer because these respondents had originally responded to a promotion by Tilda Ltd involving a Bollywood DVD offer when purchasing rice.

A systematic sample of 306 names was drawn from the sampling frame, excluding the respondents from pilot 1, for the second pilot. The pilot went online on 11th February 2009, with 79 respondent e-mails bouncing back. This left the researcher with a starting sample size of 222 respondents. The subject line for the e-mails for pilot 2 was, ‘Please help Indian Community Research for a chance to win a Bollywood DVD’, which was checked for being SPAM free by the OU IT department. Seven responses were obtained initially. The following reminders were then sent out as shown in Table 4.14

Table 4.14 The second pilot survey and the responses

	Date	Response
Pilot 2 online	11/02/09	7
First Reminder	18/02/09	3 (half-term week)
Second Reminder	25/02/09	13
Pilot Closed	03/03/09	Total responses: 23

The overall response rate for pilot 2 was 10.36%, two-and-a-half times that of pilot 1. There was no change in the quality of responses in pilot 2. This suggested that the inclusion of the lucky draw had positively contributed to the response rate without any change in the quality of responses. The Open University’s Ethics Committee,

which had previously expressed reservations about the use of incentives, was satisfied that the incentive was needed in this case.

One minor change was made to the final questionnaire, based on the response to the pilot survey. Some respondents had become confused as a result of the questionnaire consent radio-button appearing once before and again at the end of the questionnaire. Therefore, the consent radio-button was removed from the beginning of the questionnaire so that it appeared only at the end immediately before the 'submit' radio-button.

4.8.4.2 Minimum required sample size

Sample size refers to the minimum number of valid responses to be used for the analyses in the research. Not only does a statistically valid minimum sample size ensure that the conclusions of the research are applicable to the population from which the sample is drawn, but it also indicates the approximate minimum number of questionnaires that need to be sent out in the main survey.

Determination of the sample size requires consideration of various qualitative and quantitative factors. Qualitatively, factors such as resource constraints, the nature of the analyses and sample sizes used in similar previous research are guiding factors for deciding the sample size (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Similar previous research by Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) used a sample size of 110 valid respondents. In this research, in the absence of a syndicated database of British Indian consumers, the largest available database was selected.

Quantitatively, the required sample size can be calculated based on the standard error formula. According to this formula, three criteria must be met in order to

calculate the sample size (Churchill, 1995; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). These are: (1) acceptable level of precision or sampling error; (2) acceptable level of confidence in standard error; and (3) estimate of population standard deviation. The larger the sample size, the greater the level of confidence in the results. However, the larger the sample size, the greater the cost of data collection and the longer the time required for data input and analyses. Thus the level of allowable sample error and the level of confidence is a trade-off between accuracy and cost. According to Churchill (1995), normally acceptable sampling error ranges from ± 0.1 to ± 0.05 and confidence level ranges from 95% to 99%.

When the population variance is not known, it can be calculated from secondary sources, from previous survey estimates, by using the results of a pilot survey to estimate the population’s standard deviation, or purely judgement (Churchill, 1995). In this research, results from the pilot study were used to estimate the standard deviation of the population. The mean of one acculturation characteristic, ‘generation’, from the pilot survey was used to calculate the standard deviation.

The minimum required sample size was calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \sigma^2}{E^2}$$

Where n = sample size

Z = level of confidence stated in terms of the standard error of 95%

σ = population standard deviation = 0.798

E = acceptable level of sampling error = 10%

$$\text{Sample size} = \frac{2^2 \times (0.798)^2}{(0.10)^2} \approx 254$$

The minimum required sample size calculated for this research is 254 respondents. The statistically determined minimum required sample size refers to the net sample size (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). This is the sample size obtained after allowing for all other deletions such as non-qualifying respondents, missing values, etc.

Assuming an estimate of 10% response rate (as obtained in pilot 2), the researcher would need to send around 2500 questionnaires for the main survey. In this research, 2505 questionnaires were sent out in the main survey with a total of 252 responses obtained giving a 10% response rate. When responses obtained in the pilots were added, a total of 284 responses was collected. After treating the responses for missing values and non-qualifying respondents, 255 valid responses were obtained for analysis, which is more than the required sample size of 254 respondents.

4.8.4.3 Main survey

The main survey sampling frame (original sampling frame minus the pilot sampling frames) included 3538 respondents. The main survey went online on 10th March 2009, resulting in 1033 respondent e-mails bouncing back. This left the researcher with a sample size of 2505 respondents. The subject line for the e-mails for the main survey was, ‘Help Indian Research-Win DVD’ and this subject line was checked as being SPAM free by the OU IT department. A total of 67 responses was initially received. A series of reminders were then sent as shown in Table 4.15. Table 4.16 compares the response rates across the two pilot surveys, with the response rate for the main survey.

Table 4.15 Responses to the main survey and total responses

	Date	Responses
Main survey online	10/03/09	67
First Reminder	24/03/09	73
Second Reminder	07/04/09	26
Third Reminder	21/04/09	23
Fourth Reminder	06/05/09	23
Final Reminder	19/05/09	40
Main Survey Closed	09/06/09	Total responses: 252
Responses from Pilot 1	29/01/09	9
Responses from Pilot 2	03/03/09	23
Total responses obtained		284

Table 4.16 Summary of response rates across the pilot and main surveys

Pilot 1	4.39%
Pilot 2	10.36%
Main Survey	10.06%

This section has discussed the online format of the questionnaire, the identification of British Indians, the sampling procedure and the implementation of the survey leading to data collection. The next section explains how the research conforms to research ethics.

4.9 Ethics approval

In order to adhere to research ethics, approval from the Human Participants and Materials Ethics Committee (HPMEC) at The Open University was sought for both Phase 1, the qualitative phase, and Phase 2, the quantitative phase of the research. Suggestions were made by HPMEC on:

- some aspects of the covering letter to accompany the research, such as the letterhead to be used and the need for mention of contact details of the researcher
- clarification of the arrangement between the researcher and Tilda Ltd with respect to the use of the database
- the mention of confidentiality and data protection in the covering letter
- and the need to acquire consent to answer the questionnaire.

These suggestions were incorporated. HPMEC also had specific views on the matter of recompense to respondents. This resulted in two pilots being conducted in order to calibrate the nature of the recompense to be given to respondents. This aspect has already been discussed in greater detail in Section 4.8.4.1. The research study was also registered under the Data Protection Act 1998.

4.10 Reliability and validity

The previous sections have looked into how the survey was implemented, how the data were collected and how the research conforms to ethical requirements. In order to ensure that the data collected are a true reflection of the research area, researchers need to check the measurement quality of the data acquired. This can be achieved by considering reliability and validity issues.

In an ideal world, there is no difference between the observed score and the true score of a characteristic being measured. When this happens, measurement error is said to be zero. However, in the real world, this level of measurement quality is rarely achieved. When measurement error is not zero, it includes two types of errors, referred to as systematic error and random error (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Reliability and validity are useful concepts that enable the researcher to assess the degree of these measurement errors.

A systematic error is a constant error which can occur every time a measurement is taken. This therefore affects the measurement. It can be caused by the way in which a questionnaire is designed, for example, the lack of a 'don't know' alternative being presented to an undecided respondent. A random error does not manifest itself consistently every time a measurement is taken and is caused by the personal or measurement situation (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). For example, a respondent in an exceptionally good mood when answering a questionnaire may answer overly favourably as compared to another respondent in a bad mood who tends to do the opposite. As can be seen from the above discussion, responses obtained in the real world have some degree of measurement error occurring from various sources, and therefore reliability and validity issues need to be addressed.

Reliability and validity are very closely related to each other. Reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for validity. This means that if a measure is not reliable, it cannot be valid. However, if a measure is reliable, it may or may not be valid. To summarise, a measure that is valid is also reliable but the opposite may not necessarily hold true (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Peter, 1979).

4.10.1 Reliability

Reliability represents the extent to which an instrument produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made. Systematic error will not impact the reliability of an instrument because it manifests consistently every time a measurement is taken. However, random error produces inconsistency and therefore reliability is indicated by the extent to which the measures are free from random error (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

One of the methods to assess reliability is called test-retest reliability, wherein the respondents are administered the same instrument on two different occasions. The recommended time interval between the two tests is two to four weeks. Reliability is indicated based on the similarity of the two measurements (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Mitchell (1996) suggests that a sufficiently long time should elapse between the two tests to prevent carry over from the initial measurement, particularly for assessments of psychological constructs. In this research, the CLSI questionnaire was administered to the same respondents about three weeks apart. The degree of similarity between the results of the two tests indicated that reliability was in conformance.

Another method which looks at reliability is the internal consistency measure. As the name suggests, this measures the internal consistency of the set of items forming the scale (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). One of the most common ways to assess construct reliability is using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The coefficient alpha varies between 0 and 1, and a value of 0.6 or less usually denotes unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Tull and Hawkins, 1993).

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to assess the reliability of the CLSI. The alpha coefficient was found to be 0.797 for the behavioural questions and 0.700 for the attitudinal questions, which are within the region indicated by Kline (1999), therefore indicating good reliability.

4.10.2 Validity

Validity evaluates whether the instrument actually measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity of a measure is the extent to which it is free from both systematic and random errors (Churchill, 1995; Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005). In other words, validity is "the degree to which a measure accurately represents what it is supposed to" (Hair et al., 1998, p. 9). The most common ways of assessing validity are content validity and construct validity (Churchill, 1995; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In this research, content validity was used to assess validity of the research instrument. Content validity refers to whether an instrument adequately measures the characteristic it is supposed to measure (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005). Assessing content validity involves systematically checking how well the

content of an instrument represents the task at hand (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In this research, before designing the questionnaire, a thorough literature review was undertaken to ensure content validity. Subsequently, three focus groups and three dyad interviews were conducted to refine and build some sections of the questionnaire. This was followed by pretesting the questionnaire with two academics, a questionnaire design expert, two people from the consumer marketing profession and finally with two potential respondents. It was then tested for online competence by an expert in online questionnaire design. The two pilot studies also provided feedback. Only after these systematic checks was the final questionnaire operationalised. These procedures helped ensure high content validity for the survey instrument.

Construct validity assesses the degree to which an instrument performs in a theoretically sound manner (Diamantopolous and Schlegelmilch, 2005). In effect, it deals with the question of what constructs or traits the instrument is measuring (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). It also tries to infer the underlying theory behind the instrument. In this research, the construct validity refers to how well the attitudinal and behavioural constructs of the Cultural Lifestyle Inventory work in practice. Factor analysis was used to support the construct validity of this instrument (Peter, 1981; Mitchell, 1996), being performed on the eight attitudinal and twenty one behavioural items in the instrument. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic can indicate whether factor analysis will yield distinct and reliable factors. The KMO value varies between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that there is diffusion in patterns of correlation and hence factor analysis is unlikely to be appropriate.

Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) suggest that values above 0.70 are good and indicate a compact pattern of correlations.

Another test, the Bartlett's test of sphericity, when significant, shows whether the correlations between variables are significantly different from zero. This is because if the correlations between variables are not significantly different from zero, these variables can be considered to be completely independent of one another. Consequently, it would not be possible to group those variables that measure the same construct. Therefore, the KMO index and Bartlett's test can be used to identify whether attitudinal and behavioural constructs exist behind the CLSI. The KMO index for the attitudinal items was found to be 0.709 and for the behavioural items was found to be 0.723. Bartlett's test of sphericity for both these dimensions was shown to be significant. This reiterated the construct validity of the CLSI used in this research.

4.11 Research bias

In the previous section, the concepts of reliability and validity were reviewed, explaining how these enabled the measurement quality of the research to be assured. In spite of these checks, there is still the possibility of inherent bias which can affect the quality of a research study. Such bias can take the sample value away from the population parameter causing either overestimation or underestimation of the parameter (Churchill, 1995). For example, units with multiple entries in the sampling frame, such as the same name being repeated more than once in the database, have a higher probability of inclusion in the sample leading to an overestimation of the parameter. There are two types of bias: sample design errors

and measurement design errors. An additional bias referred to as hospitality error may occur in research involving consumer acculturation.

4.11.1 Sample design errors

Sample design errors are *noncoverage error*, *overcoverage error*, *population definition error* and *respondent selection error*.

Noncoverage error corresponds to failure to include all of the defined survey population in the actual sampling frame. This results in an incomplete sampling frame. This error can be reduced by using an up-to-date and complete sampling frame (Churchill, 1995). In this research, the database was from August 2008, which was the most recent option identified at the time of the research. The database was also one of the largest available listing of consumers from the British Indian community. These steps helped to keep noncoverage error to a minimum. However, the sample only included consumers with e-mail addresses, since time and budgetary constraints required the data to be collected via this medium. The exclusion of consumers without an e-mail address is potentially a limitation of the study.

Overcoverage error occurs because of multiple entries in the sampling frame and can be a source of bias (Churchill, 1995). In this research, there was no overcoverage error because any multiple entries were readily deleted from the sampling frame due to having a computerised database containing the names of the consumers.

Population definition error is the difference between the actual population relevant to the study and the population defined by the researcher. If the units that needed to be included in the population were not all included, this would result in incomplete

population (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In this research, the population 'British Indians' was defined at the outset and fully explained in the questionnaire covering letter so that the relevant population would respond. Thus the population definition error was minimised.

Respondent selection error occurs when incomplete or improper sampling procedures are used (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). This study used a probability sampling procedure which ensured randomness of the sample, thus reducing this error.

4.11.2 Measurement design errors

Measurement design error is the difference between what has been asked for and what is actually obtained by the process of measurement. This comprises *interviewer error*, *measurement instrument bias*, *non-response error* and *response error*.

Interviewer error occurs when there is a field interviewer-interviewee interaction (Churchill, 1995). The error was not applicable to this research since data were collected via an online survey.

Measurement instrument bias is a questionnaire bias occurring because of problems in the question structure and design. This may be because of unstructured, ambiguous and leading questions (Churchill, 1995). In this research, great care was devoted to determining the question structure, wording, order, form and layout. Further, some questions were amended following the focus groups and pretests with academic and practitioner experts. These steps, including the piloting phase, helped minimise any measurement instrument bias.

Non-response error occurs when some of the respondents included in the sample do not respond. This is a common problem in survey research because the researcher has no control over whether respondents choose to answer. Although response rate is not an adequate indicator of non-response bias, higher response rates may imply lower non-response bias. Therefore, a researcher can take several steps to increase the response rate and thus minimise non-response error (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In this research the following steps were taken. The covering letter had the definition for what is meant by the words 'British Indians'. This was included to enable the respondents to decide whether they could identify themselves as British Indians and therefore whether they were eligible to complete the questionnaire. The covering letter also explained the purpose of the research and was constructed in such a way that the goodwill of the respondents was sought. The online questionnaires were personalised and anonymity maintained due to the research being registered under the Data Protection Act 1998 (Dillman, 1978, 1998; Huang, 2006). The fact that the research was approved by the Ethics Committee, and also the fact that anonymity was maintained, since the research was registered under the Data Protection Act 1998, was communicated in the covering letter. Recompense for the respondents' time was offered in terms of a lucky draw (Deutskens et al., 2004). Reminders were sent out systematically. Further, to check whether those not responding shared similar characteristics to those responding, a trend analysis was used. This test assumes that late respondents are similar to non-respondents (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). The first 75 percent of the records were treated as belonging to early respondents and the remaining records were considered to be those of late respondents. Early and late respondents were compared and there was no significant

difference between the means of early and late respondents across the selected variables.

Response errors arise when respondents provide an answer which actually differs from the true response. This could be because they are unaware that they are giving inaccurate answers or because they are deliberately giving false answers. This error can be reduced by designing a questionnaire which is well understood by the respondents (Tull and Hawkins, 1994). In this research, considerable time was spent on questionnaire design as explained above in Section 4.10.2, which helped detect any flaws and correct them in time, thus helping to minimise the response error.

4.11.3 Hospitality error

Hospitality error occurs when respondents answer the questions in a particular way because they believe that this will please the researcher. This kind of error is particularly common among Asian respondents (Douglas and Craig, 1983; Sekaran, 1983). In this research, the covering letter to the questionnaire explicitly explained to respondents that their responses would be 100% confidential and that they would not be identified as individuals by the researcher. Making the respondents aware that the researcher would not identify them personally is likely to minimise this research bias.

The literature does not explain how hospitality error can be calculated. However, the researcher proposes the following method as a check of whether hospitality bias is evident. At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were given the opportunity to give their comments on the research. Some comments were perceived as positive,

such as “All questions are reasonable. Good luck with your PhD” (coded 1). While other comments were perceived as negative, such as “Not sure if you are going to get a fair answer on what you are researching” (coded 2).

Respondents who provided positive and negative comments were treated as two separate sample groups. Using the culturally loaded question “Which culture and way of life would you say has had the most positive influence on your life?” as the basis, an independent sample group t-test was carried out. The results are shown in Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.17 Respondents’ comment analysis

British Indian Respondents	Group Means		Sig. (2-tailed)
	Positive Comments	Negative Comments	
	3.13	2.00	0.092

Table 4.17 suggests that those respondents who had made positive comments about the research did not differ significantly from those who had made negative comments. This increases confidence that hospitality error was not a problem in relation to this research.

4.12 Analytical methodology

Section 4.8 described how the survey was implemented and the data were collected. Conformance to research ethics was discussed in Section 4.9. Further, Sections 4.10 and 4.11 scrutinised the concepts and tests used to ensure the measurement quality

of the data. The next stage is to examine the techniques that were employed to analyse the data and test the hypotheses presented in Chapter Three.

4.12.1 Hypotheses

While embracing positivism, the starting point of the research is to review the literature, identify the research gap and build hypotheses based on the existing body of knowledge (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007; p. 54), a hypothesis is “an unproven statement or proposition about a factor or phenomenon that is of interest to a researcher”. Hypotheses are provisional statements between two or more variables which are derived from the framework developed in the literature review. The way in which a hypothesis connects with other parts of a research study is described by Silverman (1994) as shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Hypothesis and other parts of a research study

Concept	Meaning
Theory	A set of explanatory concepts
Hypothesis	A testable proposition
Methodology	A general approach to studying research topics
Method	A specific research technique

Source: adapted from Silverman, D. (1994), p. 1

Hypothesis testing is a deductive procedure wherein sample data are used to test a supposition about the population (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1988). As mentioned earlier, hypotheses are statements of relationship between the independent and dependent variables. There are two types of hypothesis, namely, null and alternate hypothesis. The null hypothesis is always stated first. The null hypothesis (H_0) states that two variables are independent of one another, and if the null hypothesis is not

rejected, it indicates that there is no association between the two variables under consideration. The alternate hypothesis (H_1) states that the two variables are associated with each other and some effect between them is expected. Only the null hypothesis can be tested and if it is rejected, then it means that alternate hypothesis is accepted. When the alternate hypothesis is accepted, it signifies the existence of some effect between the two variables under study (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The logic behind using falsification rather than verification as a method for testing the null hypothesis has been explained by Popper (1959). He said that a theory cannot be proven conclusively irrespective of the existence of several confirmations for that theory, because all possible confirmations to prove a theory may not be known. As opposed to this, one instance of falsification of this theory is enough to refute the same. Therefore, disconfirming a hypothesis makes it possible to test a theory rather than seeking all additional ways of confirming that hypothesis, which may still not be sufficient to prove it. Table 4.19 presents the null hypotheses proposed in this research.

Table 4.19 Null hypotheses

H0-1	The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) do not apply to the British Indian community.
H0-2	For the British Indian community, there are no significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories.
H0-3abc	In the British Indian community, consumers' membership of a particular acculturation category does not affect their brand preference.
H0-4a	The age of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4b	The gender of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4c	The total household income of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4d	The education level of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4e	The religious affiliation of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4f	The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.

H0-4g	The generation to which British Indians belong is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4h	The job type of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4i	The nationality of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-5	The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) do not moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.

4.12.2 Parametric or non-parametric tests

Statistical tests are methods or techniques used to test the hypotheses under consideration (Daniel and Terrell, 1995; Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005). Before discussing statistical tests, it is important to differentiate parametric from non-parametric tests. A test that makes strict assumptions about the population from which the sample is drawn is called a parametric test. Where a statistical test makes no stringent assumptions about the population, it is known as a non-parametric test. Non-parametric tests are also referred to as ‘distribution-free’ tests. Even if all the assumptions of a parametric test are not met, there are situations where parametric tests may still be used alongside non-parametric tests to enable triangulation of the analyses and their results. Circumstances where this applies are explained more fully in the next chapter.

A list of some parametric tests and their non-parametric equivalents has been compiled by Pallant (2007) as shown in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 Parametric and non-parametric tests

Parametric technique	Non-parametric technique
None	Chi-square for goodness of fit
None	Chi-square for independence
Independent-samples t-test	Mann-Whitney U Test
Paired-samples t-test	Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test
One-way between-groups ANOVA	Kruskal-Wallis Test
One-way repeated-measures ANOVA	Friedman Test
Two-way analysis of variance (between groups)	None
Mixed between-within groups ANOVA	None
Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)	None
Analysis of covariance	None

Source: adapted from Pallant, J. (2007), p. 202

4.12.3 Statistical tests used in this research

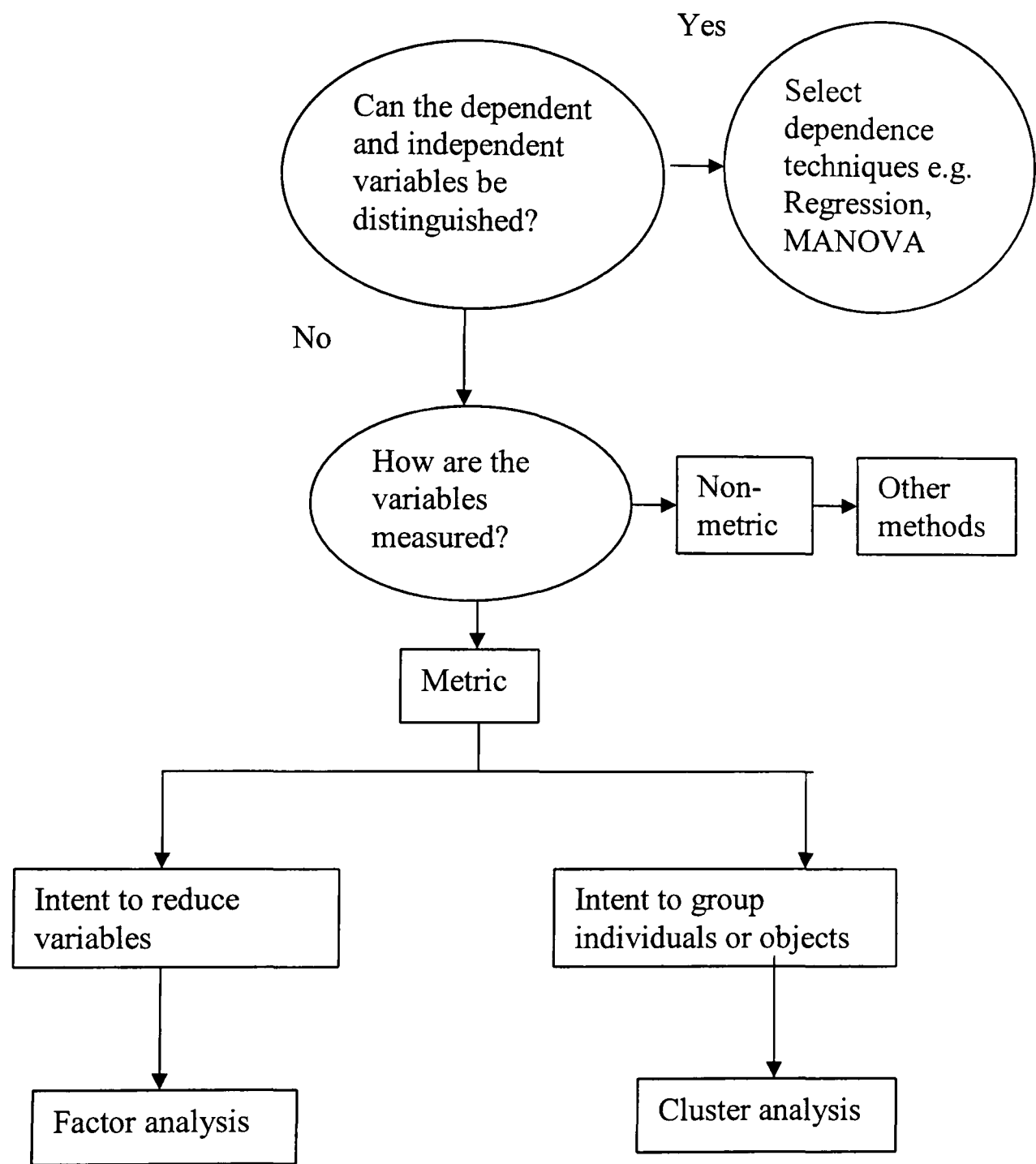
An overview of the statistical tests specifically used in this study is discussed in this section. Further in-depth and relevant explanation of these methods is also provided where needed in the next chapter.

4.12.3.1 Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a multivariate data-analysis technique which examines several variables simultaneously on each object under investigation. According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (2005), multivariate techniques can be divided into dependence and interdependence methods. Dependence methods make a distinction between dependent and independent variables. When it is not possible to distinguish between dependent and independent variables, then the researcher needs to use interdependence techniques. In this research, in analysing the existence of acculturation categories in the British Indian population, there is no distinction between dependent and independent variables, i.e., there are multiple variables.

Figure 4.2 shows the multivariate techniques that are available when using the interdependence methods.

Figure 4.2 Selecting multivariate techniques-interdependence methods



Source: adapted from Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B. B. (2005), p. 213

When the intent of the research is to group individuals, cluster analysis is used to identify clusters in the data. Malhotra and Birks (2007, p. 671) defined cluster analysis as “a class of techniques used to classify objects or cases into relatively

homogeneous groups called clusters”. Cluster analysis can be applied when instrument items are interval in nature or when data are being used that can be considered interval because they reflect relative degree.

Cluster analysis is an exploratory data method of mutually exclusive grouping (clustering) of the data based on the criterion of distance. Data observations that are close to each other fall into the same cluster as against those observations that are far apart, which fall into different clusters. Since cluster analysis is exploratory and definitive in nature, it is important to validate the results in order to have confidence about the output. Hair et al. (1998) propose that there are three steps to conducting cluster analysis:

1. determine how many groups to identify
2. conduct the clustering process
3. profile the resulting clusters.

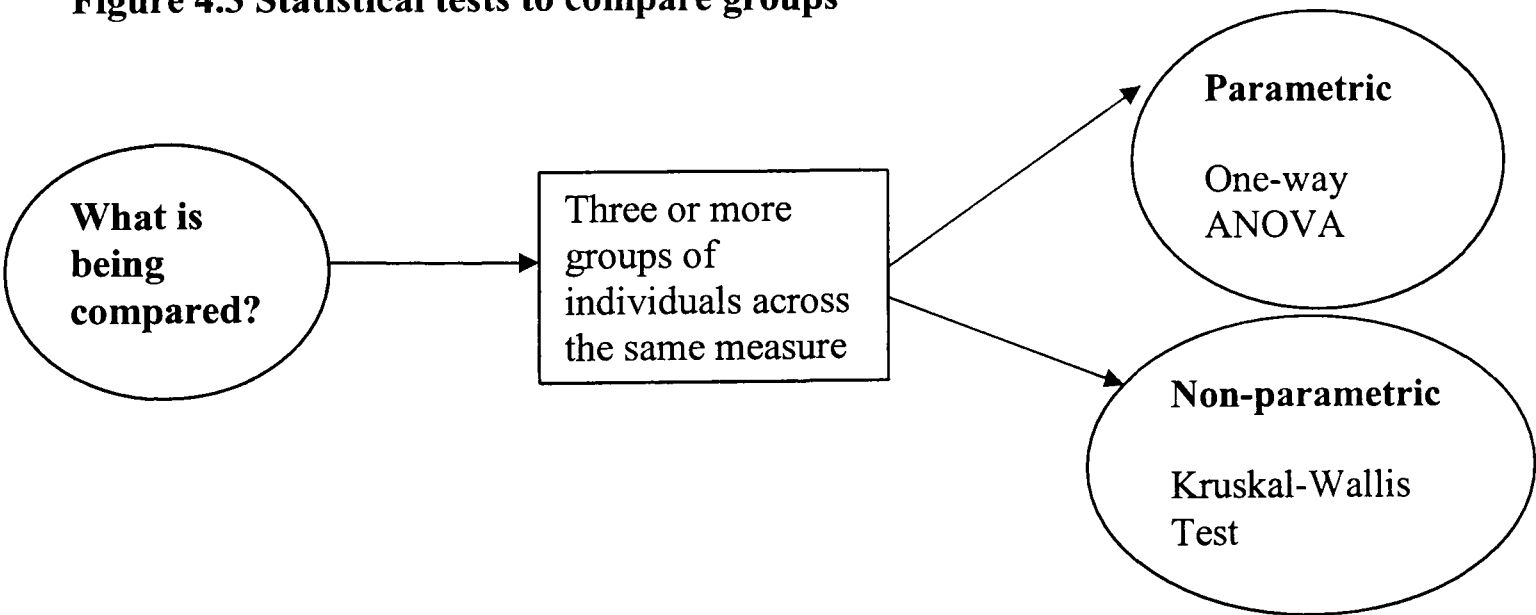
A combination of both hierarchical and non-hierarchical methods can be used for the process of clustering (Hair et al., 1998). The hierarchical method, using the average linkage between groups, establishes the target number of clusters based on those clusters which combine at large distances with their relative sizes being meaningful. The results of the hierarchical clustering method along with the theoretical considerations suggest the optimum number of clusters. Pre-specifying this optimum number of clusters obtained from the results of the hierarchical method makes it possible for K-means clustering to be conducted (Churchill, 1995). K-means clustering renders the analysis less susceptible to outliers, the distance measure used and the inclusion of irrelevant variables. Also, the use of both hierarchical and non-

hierarchical methods of clustering allows for comparison of the results, thus validating the quality of the output (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The clusters thus obtained can be presented in the form of charts displaying cluster profiles, which are then named and compared with the theory established.

4.12.3.2 One-way ANOVA

Analysis of variance is used when there are three or more independent groups. It can be used to compare mean scores of more than two groups. One way ANOVA is used when there is only one independent variable under observation. Figure 4.3 shows the statistical tests available to compare three or more groups of individuals across the same measure.

Figure 4.3 Statistical tests to compare groups



Source: adapted from Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B. B. (2005), p. 174

When the research has three independent groups together with the fact that parametric tests are more powerful than non-parametric tests, one-way ANOVA is suitable for comparing the three groups. It can test whether significant differences exist between the three independent groups according to a dependent variable.

Parametric one-way ANOVA has two assumptions, namely: each of the groups must be a random sample from a normal population; and the variance of the groups must be equal. If one or more of these assumptions are not met, then triangulation using both the parametric one-way ANOVA and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test should provide the same results in order to justify the use of the parametric test.

Although analysis of variance can reveal that at least one group mean is different from at least one other group mean, it does not reveal which group means differ from the others. In order to find out which pairs of acculturation categories were different on their brand preferences, that is, to evaluate differences in means between groups, a parametric post-hoc Tukey-HSD test can be applied. The non-parametric equivalent of the post-hoc Tukey-HSD test is the Mann-Whitney U test, which can be used on each pair of groups separately. Thus both the post-hoc Tukey-HSD test and Mann-Whitney U test can be used to make pairwise comparisons of the groups.

CHAID (chi-square automatic interaction detection) is also an efficient method for searching for relationships between predicting variables and a categorical outcome. The output from the analysis is reported in the form of a tree showing those category combinations that make the largest difference in the outcome percentages. Although this test is primarily exploratory, there are ways in which the output can be validated. CHAID is used in this research to establish whether the acculturation category of British Indians is the best differentiator of the brand preferences.

Therefore, the research uses one-way ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test and CHAID, and then triangulate between these three analyses to allow confidence in the results to be gained.

4.12.3.3 Correlation and chi-square tests

Both correlation analysis and the chi-square test have been used to study the relationship between two variables. Correlation analysis describes the strength and direction of the association between two variables. Simple bivariate correlation (zero order correlation), which is known as Spearman's Rank order correlation, can be used to study the association between two variables. However, it is important to note that the correlation results on their own, which can indicate a relationship between two variables, cannot point to which variable preceded the other and therefore cannot prove causality (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005).

Cross-tabulation examines the frequencies of observations that belong to specific categories on more than one variable, thus helping to identify relationships between cross-tabulated variables. A chi-square test is the most common test for testing the significance of the relationship between the cross-tabulated variables (Dancey and Reidy, 2007). There are two types of chi-square tests, both involving categorical data. The chi-square test for goodness-of-fit involves only one variable (having different levels or categories), with the test exploring the proportions of cases that fall into these various categories. Chi-square test for independence is used to study the association or relationship between two independent categorical variables. The test works by comparing the frequency of cases in the various categories of one variable across the different categories of the other variable, based on cross-tabulation (Pallant, 2007). In this research, correlation and a chi-square test for independence can be used to study the relationship between demographics and the acculturation categories of respondents.

4.12.3.4 Two-way ANOVA

The relationship between independent and dependent variables can change as a function of a moderator variable. Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174) explain that “a moderator is a qualitative (e.g. sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g. level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent variable and a dependent variable”. A hypothesis involving moderation is supported if the combined effect of the independent variable and the moderator variable on the outcome variable is significant. For example, a moderator hypothesis will be supported if the interaction effect of ‘acculturation category and income’ on brand preference is significant. This means that the effect of the independent variable (acculturation category) on the dependent variable (brand preference) changes as a function of the moderator variable (income).

When both the independent variable and the moderator variable are categorical variables (as is the case in this research), Baron and Kenny (1986) have suggested that a ‘two-way ANOVA’ is the best possible method to test the moderational hypothesis. This will allow the researcher to see if the independent and the moderator variables interact to affect the dependent variable.

Two-way ANOVA thus makes it possible to look at the individual and the joint effect of two independent variables on one dependent variable. Therefore, it becomes possible to find out if there is any interaction effect of one independent variable on the dependent variable which is reliant on the level of the second independent variable (Pallant, 2007). The interaction effect can be reported only if it is significant and also subject to the qualification of the main effect.

4.12.3.5 Significance level

The significance level (p-value or α) is used to determine whether the null hypothesis should be rejected or accepted. According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (2005, p. 139), “significance level indicates the maximum risk we are willing to take in rejecting a true null hypothesis: the less risk we are willing to assume, the lower the significance level”.

The risk taken can lead to wrongly rejecting or accepting the null hypothesis which induces two types of errors: Type I and Type II errors. Table 4.21 depicts the situations under which the Type I and Type II errors occur.

Table 4.21 Type I and Type II errors

Decision made	H ₀ is true (situation in the population)	H ₀ is false (situation in the population)
H ₀ is not rejected	Correct decision	Type II error
H ₀ is rejected	Type I error	Correct decision

Source: adapted from Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B. B. (2005), p. 138

In order to avoid these two types of error, the most appropriate significance level must be selected. As Dancey and Reidy (2007, p. 150) suggest “when setting our criterion for significance, we therefore need to strike the right balance between making Type I and Type II errors”. They further suggest that in most situations, an α of 0.05 provides this balance. The same view is held by Malhotra and Birks (2007), while Coolican (1994) indicated that an $\alpha < 0.05$ is a gold standard. Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (2005, p. 139) have further elaborated on this saying that “when

we select the 5% significance level to conduct a hypothesis test, what we are saying is that we will conduct our test in such a way that we will only reject the null hypothesis when in fact it is true 5 times out of 100”.

Based on the above arguments, a significance level of $\alpha < 0.05$ will generally be used in this research. However, where situations demand a stricter alpha, this has been adopted, with appropriate explanations provided at relevant points in the data analysis chapter.

4.12.3.6 Decision rule for hypothesis testing

When a hypothesis is tested at a particular significance level, the null hypothesis is either rejected or accepted. When the result of the statistical test is such that the probability of occurrence of this value is less than or equal to 0.05, the researcher proposes rejecting the null hypothesis and considering the result to be significant. If this is not the case, the null hypothesis is not rejected and the results are not regarded as significant. When testing a hypothesis, a decision on whether to reject or not reject a null hypothesis is made as a consequence of both the statistical test and the significance level.

4.12.3.7 SPSS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is one of the most widely used ‘general purpose’ programmes capable of multiple-focus applications (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005) and is also one of the most robust data analysis packages which is competent in handling very complicated statistical procedures (Dancey and Reidy, 2007; Field, 2009; Pallant, 2007). SPSS version 17.0

under Microsoft Windows will be used to conduct the statistical analyses in this research.

4.13 Summary

In summary, this chapter has covered a number of topics including research design, questionnaire design, justification for using an online survey and the statistical data analysis techniques used in the research. As discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3, the preliminary phase of this research is qualitative in nature while the main phase is quantitative. This research used focus groups and dyads in the preliminary qualitative phase for developing and/or refining the final questionnaire, which was then used in the quantitative large-scale main survey. In addition to this, the research design has been discussed from a philosophical perspective. The research adopts the epistemological position of ‘positivism’ and embraces a ‘descriptive’ research design which is ‘cross-sectional’ in nature.

As an important instrument in quantitative studies, the design and development of the questionnaire was discussed in Sections 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. The development of the questionnaire involved the following stages: Section 4.4 described the construction of a preliminary questionnaire based on the literature; Section 4.5 looked into the running of the focus groups and dyads used to refine and build the questionnaire; Section 4.6 focused on the refinement of the questionnaire; and Section 4.7 examined the pretesting phase. The advantages of using an online survey were discussed in Section 4.8.

Having pretested the questionnaire, the next stage was to identify respondents, select the sampling procedure, pilot the survey, calculate the approximate number of questionnaires needed for the main survey and finally, implement the main survey to collect the data. These aspects have been explained in Section 4.8. A database from Tilda Ltd. was identified as one of the largest available databases of British Indians. Probability sampling procedure generated a random sample. Data collection including the pilots and the main survey took five months and resulted in a total of 255 valid questionnaires. In addition to this, Section 4.9 describes the ethical approval process which ensured conformance of this research to the required ethical standards. Having collected the data, Section 4.10 examined the issues of reliability and validity, and Section 4.11 looked at the concept of research bias, considering this issue in relation to this study, so that the measurement quality of the data could be assured.

Starting with a discussion on hypotheses and hypotheses-testing, Section 4.12 went on to differentiate parametric tests from non-parametric tests. The subsequent subsections described the various analytical techniques to be used in the research to test the hypotheses formulated in Chapter Three. The section concluded with a discussion on the significance level, stating the decision rule for testing the hypotheses in this research.

The next chapter will show how the data analytical techniques described in Section 4.12 were used to obtain the results. The various approaches and the way in which the different techniques are used in the analysis will be explained in detail as they are applied to the data from the research.

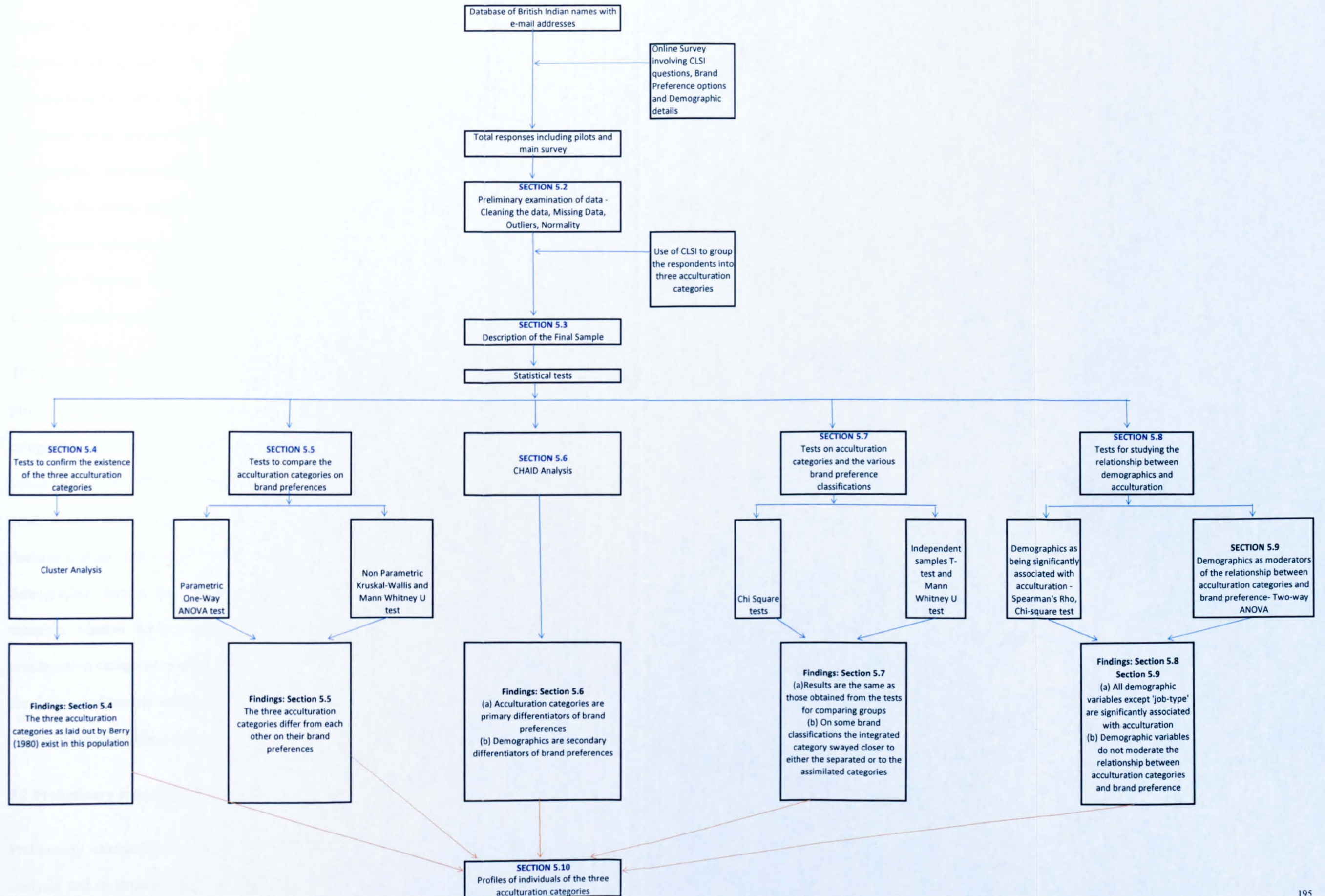
Chapter Five: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explains how the data are analysed and also presents the results of the data analysis. The data are analysed based on the process described in Section 4.12 of Chapter Four. The software package used to conduct the statistical analyses is SPSS version 17.0 under Microsoft windows.

As explained in Chapter Four, British Indians identified by their surnames who had e-mail addresses were selected from the chosen database. They were then contacted by the researcher via an online survey and using the data thus collected, a series of analyses were conducted. A chapter framework is presented in Figure 5.1, along with a snapshot of the results obtained. Each of these analyses is then explained in detail through the chapter.

Figure 5.1 The chapter framework



This chapter is composed of ten sections. Section 5.1 provides an introduction to this chapter. Section 5.2 describes the process of preparing the data for the main analysis, including cleaning the data, dealing with missing data, recoding some data, and checking for outliers and data normality. It also explains how the acculturation categories were measured. Section 5.3 explains the sample profile in terms of demographic characteristics and brand decision-making patterns. Section 5.4 describes the cluster analysis used in the research to identify the existence of three acculturation categories in the British Indian population. Section 5.5 explains the parametric One-way ANOVA test and non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test used to compare the three acculturation categories in terms of overall brand preferences.

The analysis procedure described in Section 5.6 tests the relationship between the predictor variables, namely, demographics and the acculturation categories; and the categorical outcome, namely, brand preference. Section 5.7 presents cross-tabulations of the effect of acculturation on brand preferences for the different product and service types. The section also compares those who were brand decision-makers with those who were not. In Section 5.8, the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation categories is considered. Section 5.9 examines whether the demographic factors moderate the relationship between the acculturation categories and brand preference. Section 5.10 describes the profiles of the three acculturation categories and Section 5.11 summarises the chapter and the results of the hypothesis testing.

5.2 Preliminary examination of the data

Preliminary examination of the data was carried out in preparation for the main analysis and to measure the acculturation categories. This involved checking for

errors and correcting them, dealing with any missing data and checking for outliers and normality.

5.2.1 Preparing the data for the main analysis

Initial examination was carried out to prepare the data for the main analysis. This involved: (1) cleaning the data; (2) dealing with the missing data; (3) checking for outliers; and (4) assessing normality.

5.2.1.1 Cleaning the data

Since the data were collected online, this eliminated the manual data entry process and hence excluded any data entry errors. There were also no problems of ambiguity since the online questionnaire used radio buttons, which allowed the respondents to respond to only one of several options for each close ended question.

The original file that captured the data was in Excel format. This was exported into SPSS 17.0 for Microsoft windows. A unique case ID was assigned to each record in the data set. The data were structured by naming and defining the variables and coding instructions. Value labels were assigned to provide longer descriptions for these variables.

The collected data were then examined. Checks were performed to identify any variables having scores that fell outside the range of possible values for that variable, so that where this had occurred, appropriate corrections or deletions could be made (Pallant, 2007). Since most of the data were categorical, a method that was suitable for categorical data was used. All entries except one, which showed a score value of 10 for Question 1 in Section 1, were within the expected ranges. This entry

was excluded from the subsequent analyses. Moreover, all options to the questions with reversed values were recoded to make the analysis more straightforward (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). For example, the response options to the question, 'Which of the following best describes the job you do?' initially ranged from 'senior professional' to 'don't know/not sure'. These were reverse coded for the purpose of the analysis to progress from 'don't know/not sure' to 'senior professional'. Correlations were then carried out to examine the relationships between the variables and to 'get a feel for' the data.

5.2.1.2 Missing data

Since missing data can have an impact on the analysis, the data file was examined to find out whether missing values existed and, if so, whether they occurred randomly or according to a systematic pattern. Hair et al. (2006) explain that missing data can affect the generalisability of the results. They identify four causes of missing data: (1) procedural factors such as data entry errors; (2) failure by respondents to complete the entire questionnaire; (3) responses being inapplicable to respondents; and (4) refusal by respondents to answer certain questions. These causes of missing data were dealt with in this research in the following way:

1. Procedural factors such as data entry errors.

There was no possibility of data entry errors in this research because the data were captured online, with no manual data entry by the researcher involved.

2. Failure to complete the entire questionnaire.

The following criteria for eliminating incomplete responses were adhered to:

- a) Respondents who had a large portion of questions unanswered.

Four responses were deleted for this reason. On investigating further, it appeared that these records belonged to individuals who were not from the target population. Three were not British Indians (Nepalese and Sri Lankans) and one did not live in the UK.

- b) Respondents whose answers showed little variance i.e. central response '4' was given for most of the questions. For example, when there were seven options to a question, the respondent chose the fourth option most often.

One respondent record was removed from the data captured for this reason.

3. Responses being inapplicable.

An example would be where response options given for a particular question were not applicable to a particular respondent. However, every effort was made during the design of the research instrument to minimise such difficulties. For example, question 18 of the CLSI asks, 'What is the ethnic makeup of the neighbourhood you live in?' As there may have been recent immigrants who were unfamiliar about their neighbourhood, an option 'I do not know my neighbourhood well' was included. Problems of this kind were thoroughly dealt with at the focus group and pilot stages and the response options modified accordingly.

4. Refusal to respond to certain questions.

This can occur because a question is of a sensitive nature or because the respondent has insufficient knowledge to answer the question or has skipped an entry by oversight. The focus groups and pilot studies were used to craft the questions so that problems pertaining to sensitivity and knowledge shortfall were minimised.

In spite of these precautions and the action taken as a consequence, there were some missing data to deal with. For each of the variables in the research, no more than 6% of the values were missing, suggesting that the level of missing data was low. Further examination showed the missing data to be randomly distributed across different variables and cases, with no systematic missing data bias (Hair et al., 2006).

Replacement of this small percentage of randomly distributed missing data was achieved (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; Malhotra and Birks, 2007) using the following procedure:

1. For questions in the 'demographics' section, the missing values could be estimated using the responses given under the 'please specify' option of the relevant questions. For example, to Question 13 of Section 3, a respondent specifying that they were born in India and came to the UK after marriage can be classified as being first generation.

2. Question 6 of Section 3 pertains to those born outside the UK. Those born in the UK left this question unanswered, so the code '0' was assigned during coding, to reflect those 'born in the UK'.
3. For questions in the 'CLSI' section, the missing values were based on the information captured on the acculturation category of that respondent (Section 5.2.2 shows the method for measuring the acculturation category). Sometimes the information provided under the 'please specify' option was useful in approximating the missing value. For example, to question 11 of the CLSI, "In what language do you PRAY?", if the calculated acculturation category for the respondent was 'separation', the missing value was approximated as '(2) More Indian than in English'.
4. For questions on 'brand preference', the code that appeared most, i.e. the modal value, was used to fill in the missing values.

5.2.1.3 Outliers

Outliers are observations with cases having values well above or well below the majority of other cases (Pallant, 2007). As suggested by Hartwig and Dearing (1979), frequency tables and box and whisker plots were generated, and the outliers were identified. Five records were eliminated because they showed observations which were extreme.

5.2.1.4 Normality

Normality is used to describe a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle and smaller frequencies towards the extremes (Gravetter & Wallnau, 1988). Various statistical tests, especially if they are parametric in nature, assume a normal distribution. The Central Limit Theorem states that the sampling distribution of the mean approaches normal as the sample size increases (Kinnear and Taylor, 1991). The workable sample size in this research was 255 cases, taking into consideration the records of respondents whose scores tied on acculturation categories (see Section 5.2.2) or on brand preferences. Since this sample size is large, it diminishes the detrimental effects of non-normality (Hair et al., 2006). Despite the large sample size, since some variables and certain acculturation categories showed a departure from normality, care was taken in the data analysis to apply corrections and triangulate results with non-parametric tests. This is explained in Section 5.5 of this chapter.

5.2.2 Measuring the acculturation categories

The CLSI includes 29 questions which have response alternatives corresponding to the three acculturation categories. For example, the question asking about the language used in telling jokes has response options of ‘(a) only or (b) mostly in Indian’ for the separation category; ‘(c) only or (d) mostly in English’ for the assimilation category; and ‘(e) both in English and Indian about equally’ for the integration category.

A syntax was created in SPSS to enable the individuals to be scored and allocated to acculturation categories on the basis of the greatest numbers of answers in a particular response category. For example, a respondent who answered (a) or (b) 17 times, (e) five times, and (c) or (d) seven times would belong in the separation category. This syntax automatically threw up the coding for a respondent's acculturation category.

There were eight respondents who scored equally highly in two acculturation categories. Their records were eliminated from the data captured. Ten respondents also tied on their brand preference scores, leading to their records being deleted. This procedure left a total workable sample size of 255 respondents, falling into the three acculturation categories shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Distribution of respondents across acculturation categories

Acculturation Category	Frequency	Percent
Separation	151	59.2
Assimilation	40	15.7
Integration	64	25.1
Total	255	100.0

5.3 Description of the sample

Section 3 of the questionnaire asked the respondents to provide demographic details. The demographic details included age, gender, household income, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, the generation to which the respondents belonged, and their nationality. Respondents were also asked whether they were the

decision makers in their households for food products, financial services, travel, entertainment and cosmetic brands. Table 5.2 presents some of the demographic information from the sample and Table 5.3 summarises information about the respondents' decision making.

Table 5.2 Demographic information

Demographic factor	Frequency	Percent
Age Group		
18- 24	8	3.2
25- 34	88	34.5
35- 44	82	32.2
45- 54	48	18.8
55- 64	23	9.0
65+	6	2.4
Total household income		
Less than 10,000	11	4.3
10,001- 20,000	28	11.0
20,001- 40,000	68	26.7
40,001- 60,000	67	26.3
60,001- 80,000	30	11.8
80,001- 100,000	24	9.4
100,001- 150,000	14	5.5
More than 150,000	13	5.1
Length of stay in the UK		
"born in UK"	36	14.1
0-5 years	58	22.7
6- 10 years	49	19.2
11- 20 years	32	12.5
21- 30 years	29	11.4
31- 40 years	40	15.7
41- 50 years	10	3.9
51- 60 years	1	0.4
Total	255	100.0

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of the respondents were between 25 and 64 years of age (94.5%). Eight respondents (3.2%) were between 18 and 24 years of age, and six respondents (2.4%) were above 65 years of age. The numbers from the 2001 census show that individuals between 25 and 64 years of age make up 81.6% of the British Indian population, indicating proximity to what is being observed in the sample.

Of the total respondents, 141 were males (55.3%) and 114 were females (44.7%). In the 2001 census, the corresponding percentages for the British Indian population were 49.7% for males and 50.83% for females. This survey thus had slightly fewer women compared with the census. This is probably to be expected because of the nature of economic migration, where often the working males arrive prior to the families joining them. Table 5.2 shows, 74.2% of the respondents had total household income of between £20,001 and £100,000 per annum. Thirty nine respondents (15.3%) received total household income below £20,000 per annum, whereas 27 respondents (10.6%) enjoyed a total household income above £100,000 per annum.

86.2% of the respondents described themselves as Hindu or Sikh, with only 3.5% describing themselves as Christians. This reflects the pattern of immigration of people of Indian origin to the UK, which has predominantly been from the Western and North Western regions of India, where these two religious affiliations are predominant. According to the 2001 census, 74.1% of British Indians described themselves as Hindu or Sikh, suggesting a similar breakdown to the sample.

14.1% of the respondents were born in the UK. While 107 respondents (42.0%) had lived in the UK for 0 to 10 years, 101 respondents (39.6%) had lived in the UK for 11 to 40 years, and only 11 respondents (4.3%) had lived in the UK for more than 40 years. Furthermore, 78.4% of the respondents were first generation British Indians. While 50 (20.0%) were second generation British Indians, only 4 (1.6%) belonged to the third generation. 157 (61.6%) respondents held British nationality and 98 (38.4%) held Indian nationality.

To summarise, the majority of respondents were between 25 and 64 years old (94.5%), had a total household income between £20,001 and £100,000 per annum (74.2%) and described themselves as Hindu or Sikh (86.4%). While 55.3% were males, the percentage of females was 44.7%. Nearly half of the respondents (54.5%) had lived in the UK for up to 20 years. The majority of respondents were first generation in the UK (78.4%), with about 61.6% holding British nationality. Overall, the percentages for age, gender and religious affiliation of the sample were not greatly different from the corresponding figures seen in the 2001 Census.

The response options to demographic questions about education and employment needed to be relevant to British Indians from India, East Africa and Britain. The response options were tailored accordingly. For example, for question 9 of Section 3, 'What is the highest educational level you have attained?', options such as '12th Standard' or 'Indian Polytechnique' were included to reflect qualifications in India. As these do not exactly correspond to the way the census in the UK captures this information, a comparison cannot be made. Nevertheless, comparisons of other demographic variables such as age, gender and religious affiliation have been made

with the British Indian population in the 2001 census. However, these comparisons are limited because the research sample used here does not include British Indians who fall into the marginalisation category. Therefore the demographics of this sample are not directly comparable with the British Indian population as a whole. The implications for the generalisability of the research findings are considered in Section 7.4.

Next, the researcher looked at whether the respondents were the decision makers for the various product and service types being examined. It is important to emphasise that this research focuses on brand preferences rather than actual brand choices. For this reason, it was not considered necessary to exclude those who were not the decision makers for particular products. In other words, these respondents were still able to express their brand preferences. Table 5.3 shows the percentages of respondents who were the product decision makers, both at an overall and at an acculturation category level.

Table 5.3 ‘Are you the person who typically is the decision maker for..... ?’

	Total		Separation		Assimilation		Integration	
Decision Maker	% Yes	% No	% Yes	% No	% Yes	% No	% Yes	% No
Food Products	69.0	31.0	68.2	31.8	80.0	20.0	64.1	35.9
Financial Services	70.2	29.8	71.5	28.5	65.0	35.0	70.3	29.7
Travel	75.3	24.7	78.8	21.2	70.0	30.0	70.3	29.7
Entertainment	69.0	31.0	68.9	31.1	82.5	17.5	60.9	39.1
Cosmetics	51.4	48.6	49.0	51.0	72.5	27.5	43.8	56.3

As shown in Table 5.3, overall and at the acculturation category level, between 65% and 80% of the respondents were decision makers for food products, financial services, travel and entertainment. For cosmetic brands, this figure was about 50%, except for the respondents in the assimilated category where it was 72.5%. In Section 5.7.2, the brand preferences for respondents who ‘were’ and the group of respondents who ‘were not’ decision makers for the products and services studied will be compared.

5.4 Cluster Analysis

The next stage was to find out whether the three acculturation categories of separation, integration and assimilation (Berry, 1980), apply to the British Indian population. Hierarchical cluster analysis was applied to the CLSI data in order to identify the number of clusters that existed. Table 5.4 shows the numbers of respondents in each cluster.

Table 5.4 Hierarchical cluster solution

Average Linkage (Between Groups)			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	1	121	47.5
	2	9	3.5
	3	70	27.5
	4	32	12.5
	5	3	1.2
	6	1	.4
	7	1	.4
	8	4	1.6
	9	4	1.6
	10	1	.4
	11	3	1.2
	12	3	1.2
	13	2	.8
	14	1	.4
Total		255	100.0

As seen in Table 5.4, the cluster solution reveals the number of naturally occurring clusters and also ties in with the theoretical conceptualisation which was based on Berry’s (1980) three acculturation categories. While cluster numbers 1, 3 and 4 had a sizeable number of respondents, the other clusters were very small in size. These three large clusters were considered optimum because they accounted for 87.5% of the entire sample.

Having established the optimum number of clusters using hierarchical clustering, a K-Means clustering method was applied to the data. This method is less susceptible to outliers in the data, and the distance measure used is well suited for large data

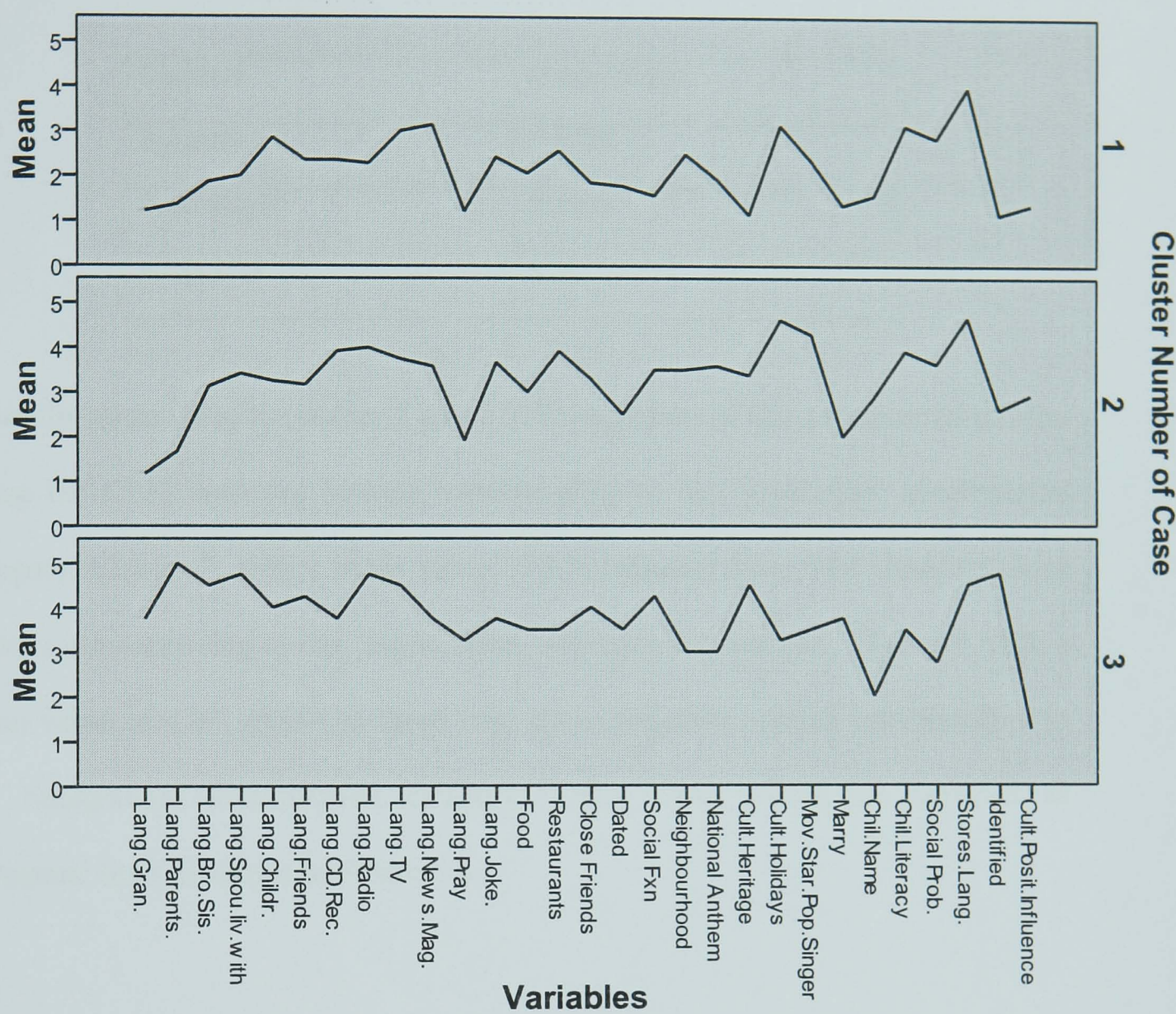
files and allows the analyst to choose the target number of clusters. It was also interesting to compare the results obtained by this method to that obtained previously. The output from the non-hierarchical K-Means method is shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Cluster size from K-Means clustering method

Number of Cases in each Cluster		
Cluster	1	129.000
	2	37.000
	3	89.000
Valid		255.000
Missing		.000

Table 5.5 shows the size of each cluster obtained by the K-Means method to be similar to those of clusters 1, 3 and 4 obtained from the hierarchical method. In order to display the cluster profiles obtained by the K-Means method, a chart builder was used. The chart builder created the three cluster profiles shown in Figure 5.2, which aided in describing and assigning names to the clusters.

Figure 5.2 Initial profiles of three clusters



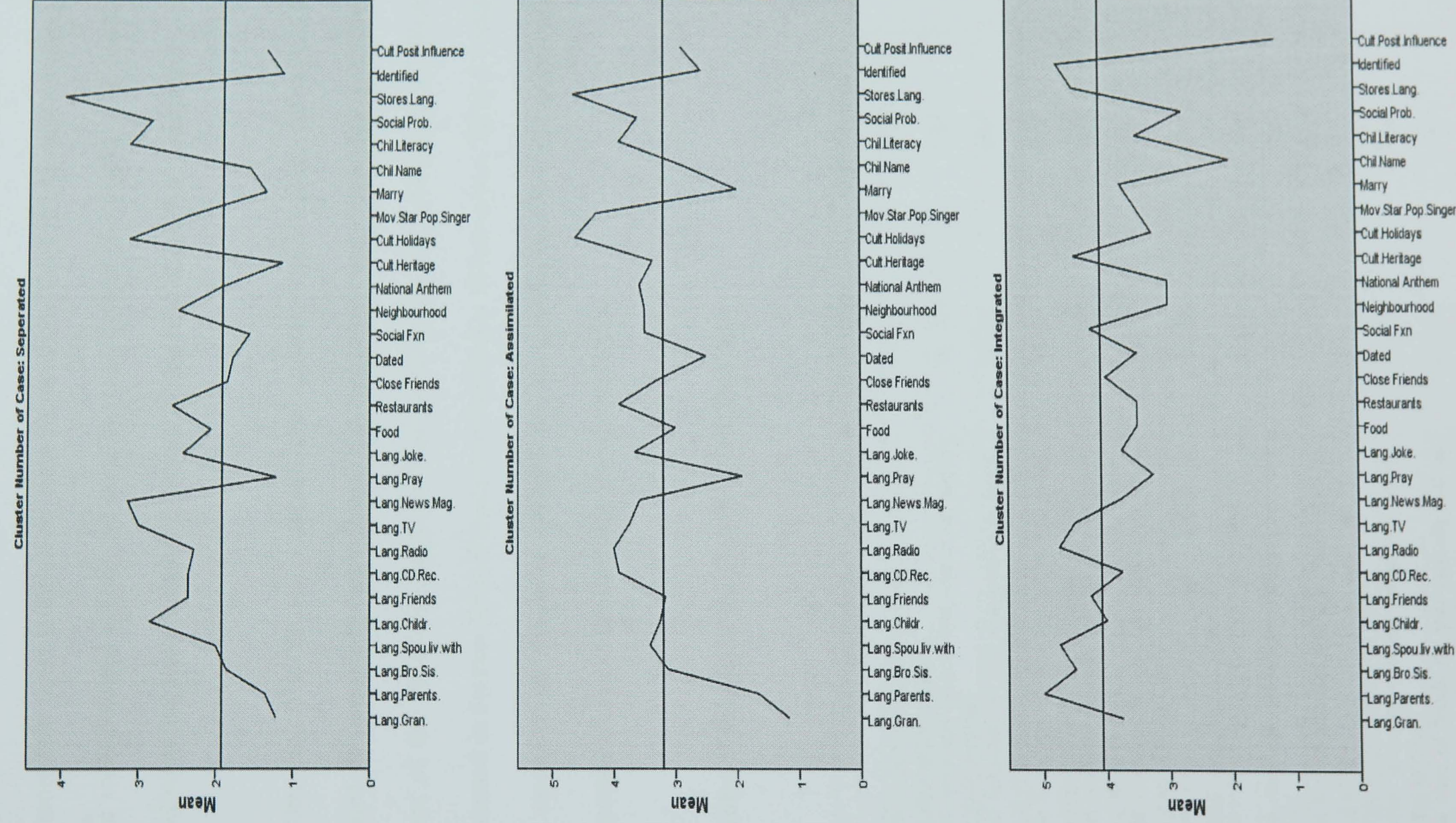
In an attempt to describe the clusters as seen in Figure 5.2, patterns of means were looked for within each cluster. Initial visual inspection showed that, on a 5-point scale, cluster 1 had most points around the 2nd point, cluster 2 had most points in the centre and cluster 3 had most points around 4th point. Overall mean values were then calculated for these three clusters as presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Overall mean values for the clusters

Clusters	Mean Values
Separated	1.9195
Assimilated	3.2000
Integrated	4.08

Since the mean value for cluster 1 was 1.9195, members of this group are those who chose the CLSI response options corresponding to the ‘separation’ acculturation category. Cluster 2, with a mean value of 3.2, includes those who chose response options corresponding to the ‘assimilation’ acculturation category. Cluster 3, with a mean value of 4.06, relates to those who chose response options corresponding to the ‘integration’ acculturation category. These mean values are depicted as horizontal lines as shown in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 Final profiles of three clusters showing mean values



Final visual inspection of Figure 5.3 revealed that cluster 1 had most points around 2, cluster 2 had most points between points 2 and 4, and cluster 3 had most points at or more than point 4. Based on these observations, both empirically by calculation (see Table 5.6) and visually by using the chart builder (see Figure 5.3), cluster 1 is labelled as ‘separated’, cluster 2 as ‘assimilated’ and cluster 3 as ‘integrated’.

A One-Way ANOVA test was performed in order to see whether the three clusters named as ‘separated’, ‘assimilated’ and ‘integrated’ were significantly different in terms of the 29 CLSI questions. The requirements for conducting ANOVA are discussed in Section 5.5 and these were fulfilled in this instance. Table 5.7 includes the results of the One-Way ANOVA test for each of the 29 CLSI questions, and Appendix III shows the Post Hoc Tukey test results.

Table 5.7 Results of the One-Way ANOVA test

CLSI questions	F-statistic	Significance
What language do you use when you speak with your grandparents?	33.406	.000*
What language do you use when you speak with your parents?	142.694	.000*
What language do you use when you speak with your brothers and sisters?	58.958	.000*
What language do you use when you speak with your spouse or person you live with?	34.857	.000*
What language do you use when you speak with your children?	14.179	.000*
What language do you use when you speak with your closest friends?	45.034	.000*
What kind of records, tapes, DVDs or compact discs (CDs) do you own?	29.174	.000*
What kind of radio stations do you listen to?	28.493	.000*
What kind of television stations do you watch?	10.023	.000*
What kind of newspapers and magazines do you read?	4.149	.017*
In what language do you pray?	17.983	.000*
In what language are the jokes with which you are familiar?	35.006	.000*
What kind of foods do you typically eat at home?	31.612	.000*

At what kind of restaurants do you typically eat?	21.884	.000*
What is the ethnic background of your closest friends?	35.607	.000*
What is the ethnic background of the people you have dated?	9.841	.000*
When you go to social functions such as parties, dances, picnics or sports events, what is the ethnic background of the people (including your family members) that you typically go with?	30.643	.000*
What is the ethnic makeup of the neighborhood where you live?	7.593	.001*
Which national anthem do you know the words to?	32.300	.000*
Which national or cultural heritage do you feel most proud of?	30.208	.000*
What types of national or cultural holidays do you typically celebrate?	47.742	.000*
What is the ethnic background of the movie stars and popular singers that you most admire?	40.976	.000*
If you had a choice, what is the ethnic background of the person that you would/did marry?	21.798	.000*
You are a parent/Imagine you are a new parent. What type of names would/did you give your children?	15.137	.000*
You are a parent/Imagine you are a new parent. If you had children, in what language would/did you teach them to read, write and speak?	1.303	.274
Which culture and way of life do you believe is responsible for the social problems (such as poverty, teenage pregnancies and gangs) found in some Indian-British communities in the U.K.?	6.256	.002*
At what kinds of stores do you typically shop?	1.328	.267
How do you prefer to be identified?	24.943	.000*
Which culture and way of life would you say has had the most positive influence on your life?	22.864	.000*

* Significance is at the 0.05 level.

These results suggest that there are significant differences in the means for the ‘separated’, ‘assimilated’ and ‘integrated’ clusters on the basis of the 27 questions from the CLSI. For only two questions, namely ‘You are a parent/Imagine you are a new parent. If you had children, in what language would/did you teach them to read, write and speak?’ and ‘At what kinds of stores do you typically shop?’, no significant differences were found in the means. Both these questions pertained to use of language, either at home with children or in terms of preference of stores basis language spoken in them. That the three groups are not significantly different

from each other on these questions is understandable given that English is the language of instruction at schools and thus is the first language that children learn to read and write. Likewise, English is the most widely spoken language in stores, whatever their format or ownership. Overall, as Appendix III shows, 27 out of the 29 questions had significant mean differences in the pairwise comparisons.

To summarise, three clusters, namely, ‘separated’, ‘assimilated’ and ‘integrated’, were identified which correspond with Berry’s (1980) three acculturation categories. Significant differences in the means for these clusters was found and in the means for at least two or more pairwise differences across 27 out of 29 acculturation questions. Therefore, the null hypothesis H0-1 *The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) do not apply to the British Indian community* is rejected and the alternate hypothesis H1-1 *The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) apply to the British Indian community* is accepted.

5.5 Statistical tests to compare groups

The cluster analysis has identified three clusters which correspond to Berry’s (1980) three acculturation categories. Subsequently, the well established ‘Cultural Life Style Inventory’ was used to confirm the acculturation category to which individuals belonged.

In order to establish whether individuals in these three acculturation categories differ in terms of their brand preferences, both parametric and non-parametric tests were carried out. The parametric test used was One-Way ANOVA and the non-parametric test used was Kruskal-Wallis.

At this stage it may be noted that although the term ‘brand preference’ is used at certain places, brand preferences across a range of products and services are actually being looked at.

5.5.1 One-Way ANOVA

One-Way ANOVA test is suitable for comparing three or more levels of an independent variable on a particular dependent variable (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Pallant, 2007). In this research, the three levels are the three acculturation categories, namely, separation, integration and assimilation with the dependent variable being brand preference.

A preliminary examination to look for differences between the acculturation categories based on respondents’ brand preferences was carried out. Table 5.8 presents the details for the One-Way ANOVA results.

Table 5.8 Descriptives for the One-Way ANOVA results

Brand Preference						
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Separation	151	1.4040	.49233	.04006	1.3248	1.4831
Assimilation	40	1.9000	.30382	.04804	1.8028	1.9972
Integration	64	1.6250	.48795	.06099	1.5031	1.7469
Total	255	1.5373	.49959	.03129	1.4756	1.5989

The effect size depicts the strength of a relationship (Dancey and Reidy, 2007). This was calculated as: $d = x1-x2/\text{mean SD}$, where ‘d’ is the distance between the two means x1 and x2, in terms of standard deviations SD. If the overlap between the two

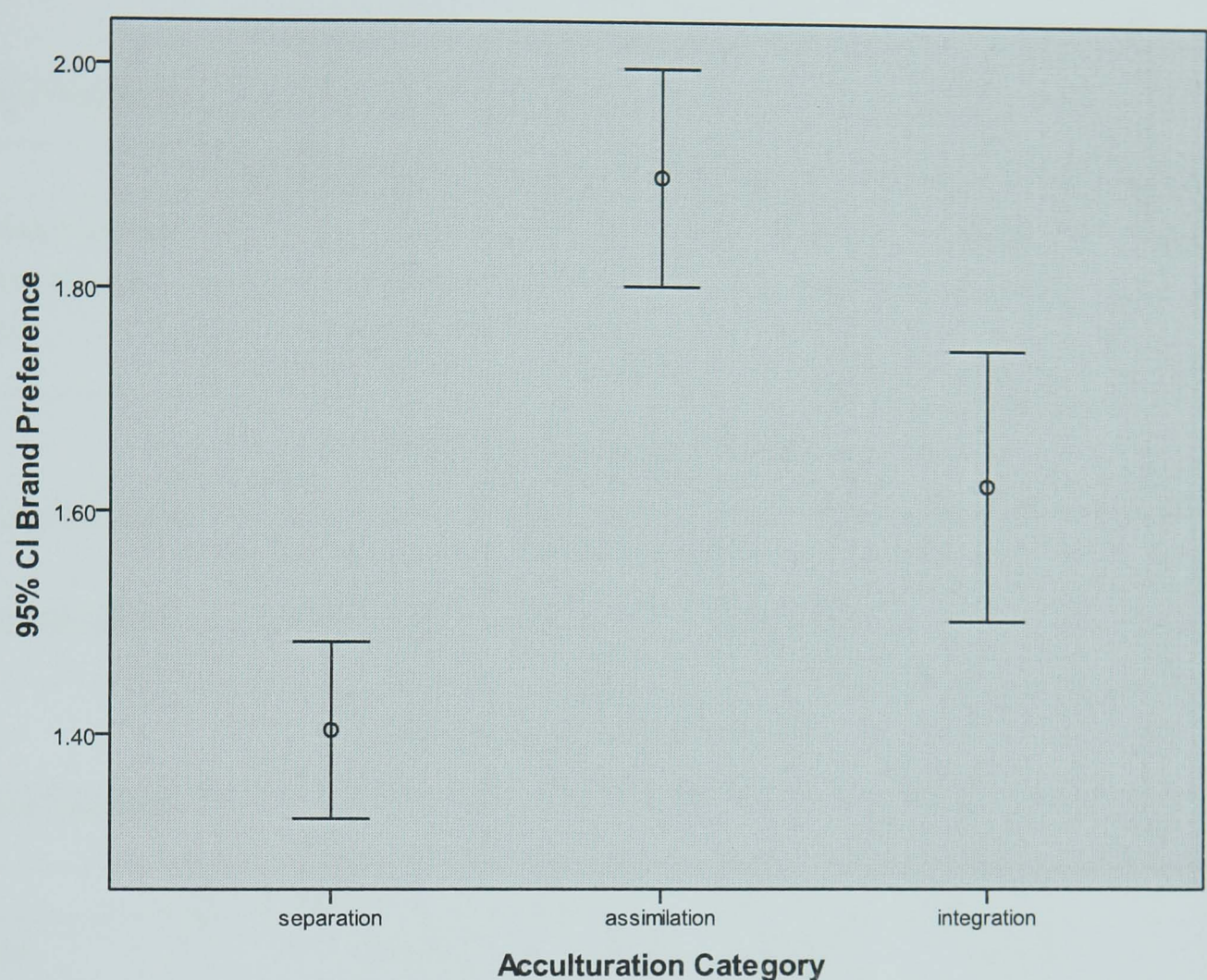
groups is large, the effect size is relatively small. Table 5.9 summarises the effect size and the percentage overlap between the three pairs of acculturation categories.

Table 5.9 Effect size and percentage overlap between acculturation categories

Acculturation categories	Effect size	Cohen's guidelines (1988)	Percentage overlap between the acculturation categories
Separation and Assimilation	1.25	Large	Small
Assimilation and Integration	0.69	Large	Small
Separation and Integration	0.45	Medium	Small to medium

As summarised in Table 5.9, the percentage overlap between the three pairs of acculturation categories was small, suggesting that separated and assimilated categories, assimilated and integrated categories, and separated and integrated categories; would be expected to significantly differ from each other in terms of brand preferences. This is depicted pictorially using an error bar chart in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4 Error bar chart



Note: 95% CI Brand Preference, means that one can be 95% confident, that the population means are within the intervals indicated in the error bar chart, as shown above.

Visual inspection of Figure 5.4 reveals that the acculturation categories do not overlap, suggesting a real difference between the brand preference population means for the three acculturation categories. Although this shows the pattern of means in the population, the best statistical estimate of the population mean is to estimate the mean of all of these mean differences (Dancey and Reidy, 2007). Thus, in order to statistically compare the three categories, the F-Statistics of the One-Way ANOVA test result was calculated. Table 5.10 shows the One-Way ANOVA test results.

Table 5.10 One-Way ANOVA test results

ANOVA					
Brand Preference					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.438	2	4.219	19.347	.000
Within Groups	54.958	252	.218		
Total	63.396	254			
Test of Homogeneity of Variances					
Brand Preference					
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.		
82.411	2	252	.000		
Robust Tests of Equality of Means					
Brand Preference					
	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.	
Welch	31.289	2	113.133	.000	
Brown-Forsythe	23.769	2	173.778	.000	
a. Asymptotically F distributed					

The One-Way ANOVA of brand preferences by acculturation category shows significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in the mean scores for brand preferences across the three acculturation categories. Therefore, the null hypothesis H0-2 *For the British Indian community, there are no significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories* is rejected and the alternate hypothesis H1-2 *For the British Indian community, there are significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories* is accepted.

At this stage, it is important to check whether the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met for these data. The results of Levene's test for homogeneity, which checks whether the variance in the scores is the same for each of the three groups, are shown in Table 5.10 above. The significance value is less than 0.05, which suggests that the assumption of homogeneity of variance does not hold good for this data. One way of dealing with this is to seek adjustments using the Brown-Forsythe and Welch tests. Another way is to perform the analysis using a non-parametric statistical method which does not assume homogeneity of variance and normality. The results for Brown-Forsythe and Welch tests are shown in Table 5.10 above, and the non-parametric statistical methods which are used are described in Section 5.5.2.

The Brown-Forsythe test adjusts for heterogeneity of variance when calculating the between-groups to within-groups ratio. This is achieved by adjusting each group's contribution to the between-groups variation by a weight related to its within-groups variation (SPSS, 2005a). The Welch test adjusts the denominator of the F ratio, such that it has the same expectation as the numerator, despite the heterogeneity of within-group variance (SPSS, 2005a). As Table 5.10 shows, both of these tests indicate highly significant differences in brand preference between the acculturation categories, consistent with the One-Way ANOVA test.

Based on the One-Way ANOVA test results, the next step was to examine whether significant differences exist in terms of brand preference between the (1) separation and assimilation categories (2) the assimilation and integration categories, and (3) the separation and integration categories. Post hoc testing was carried out to

determine which categories differ from each other in terms of their mean differences.

The post hoc tests used was the Post Hoc Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test. This is more conservative than the Duncan and SNK (Student-Newman-Keuls) test, and controls the false positive rate throughout, making it more powerful than the Bonferroni and Sidak tests for pairwise comparisons (SPSS, 2005a). Table 5.11 shows the Post Hoc Tukey HSD test results for multiple comparisons, while Table 5.12 shows the percentage brand preference for the three acculturation categories.

Table 5.11 Post Hoc Tukey HSD test results for multiple comparisons

Brand Preference
Tukey HSD

(I) Acculturation Category	(J) Acculturation Category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Separation	Assimilation	-.49603*	.08304	.000	-.6918	-.3002
	Integration	-.22103*	.06966	.005	-.3852	-.0568
Assimilation	Separation	.49603*	.08304	.000	.3002	.6918
	Integration	.27500*	.09413	.011	.0531	.4969
Integration	Separation	.22103*	.06966	.005	.0568	.3852
	Assimilation	-.27500*	.09413	.011	-.4969	-.0531

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.12 Percentage brand preference across acculturation categories

Acculturation Category	Host brand preference	Ethnic brand preference
Separation	40.4%	59.6%
Integration	62.5%	37.5%
Assimilation	90.0%	10.0%

As Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show, respondents in the separation category preferred ethnic brands 59.6% of the time compared to 37.5% and 10.0% in the integration and assimilation categories respectively. The Post Hoc Tukey-HSD test shows this to be significantly different ($p < 0.05$) from both the assimilation and separation categories. Respondents in the integration category preferred host brands 62.5% of the time compared to 40.4% and 90.0% in the separation and assimilation categories respectively and ethnic brands 37.5% of the time compared to 59.6% and 10.0% in the separation and assimilation categories respectively. The Post Hoc Tukey-HSD test for the integration category shows this to be significantly different ($p < 0.05$) from both the assimilation and the separation categories. Furthermore, respondents in the assimilation category preferred host brands 90.0% of the time compared to 62.5% and 40.4% in the integration and separation categories respectively with the Post Hoc Tukey-HSD test showing this to be significantly different ($p < 0.05$) from both the integration and the separation categories.

In summary, the null hypothesis H0-3abc *In the British Indian community, consumers' membership of a particular acculturation category does not affect their brand preference* is rejected and the alternate hypotheses H1-3c *In the British Indian community, consumers in the Separation category are significantly more likely to prefer ethnic brands more often and host brands less often than consumers in the other categories*, H1-3b *In the British Indian community, consumers in the Integration category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the Separation category; and are significantly more likely to prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the Assimilation category* and H1-3a *In the British Indian*

community, consumers in the Assimilation category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the other categories are accepted.

5.5.2 Kruskal-Wallis test

In order to triangulate the results obtained from the One-Way ANOVA test, which examined whether the means of the three acculturation categories were significantly different on brand preference, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. Since the Kruskal-Wallis test is non-parametric in nature, it does not assume normality and homogeneity of variances as a requirement. Table 5.13 shows the results for the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 5.13 Kruskal-Wallis test

Ranks			
	Acculturation Category	N	Mean Rank
Brand Preference	Separation	151	111.01
	Assimilation	40	174.25
	Integration	64	139.19
	Total	255	
Statistics			
	Brand Preference		
Chi-Square	33.809		
df	2		
Asymp. Sig.	.000		
Kruskal Wallis Test			
Grouping Variable: Acculturation Category			

As Table 5.13 shows that there is a statistically significant difference in brand preference across the three acculturation categories, $p=0.000$. However, this test does not reveal which pairs of groups are statistically significantly different from one another. To study the pairwise comparisons, it was necessary to perform Mann-Whitney U tests between the pairs of acculturation categories.

When conducting non-parametric planned comparisons, a test such as the Mann-Whitney U test does not control for the increased risks of Type 1 errors (i.e. rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true). In order to control for this increased risk, a Bonferroni adjustment was applied to the alpha level used to judge the statistical significance. This adjustment involves using a more stringent alpha level, by dividing the alpha level of 0.05 by the number of tests to be used ($0.05/3=0.017$). This stricter alpha level of 0.017 was used in the Mann-Whitney U tests as the criterion for determining significance. Table 5.14 presents the results for the Mann-Whitney U test for the separation and assimilation categories.

Table 5.14 Mann-Whitney U test: Separation and Assimilation categories

Ranks				
	Acculturation Category	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Preference	Separation	151	86.08	12998.00
	Assimilation	40	133.45	5338.00
	Total	191		
Test Statistics				
	Brand Preference			

Mann-Whitney U	1522.00	
Wilcoxon W	12998.00	
Z	-5.565	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
Grouping Variable: Acculturation Category		

As Table 5.14 shows, the probability value (p) is less than the stricter alpha 0.017. Therefore, there is a statistically significant difference in brand preferences between the separation and assimilation acculturation categories. The effect size ‘r’, calculated as z/square root of N, where N= total number of cases, is 0.4026. This is considered to be a medium to large effect using Cohen’s (1988) criteria, suggesting a significant difference between the separation and assimilation categories. The same test conducted for assimilation and integration categories, and for separation and integration categories, also showed significant differences between these two acculturation category pairs. These results are included in Appendix IV. Table 5.15 presents the summary of the results from the Mann-Whitney U tests for all of the acculturation category pairs.

Table 5.15 Summary of the results from the Mann-Whitney U test

Acculturation categories	‘p’ value	Effect size ‘r’
Separation and Assimilation	.000*	0.4026
Assimilation and Integration	.002*	0.3000
Separation and Integration	.003*	0.2020

* Significance at 0.01 level

The Kruskal-Wallis test has shown a statistically significant difference in brand preference across the three acculturation categories (see Table 5.13). Furthermore, the Mann-Whitney U tests reveal significant differences between the ‘separation and

assimilation', 'assimilation and integration' and also between the 'separation and integration' categories (see Table 5.15).

The conclusion from the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and the Mann-Whitney U tests is consistent with the conclusions drawn from the results of the One-Way ANOVA analysis shown above. This means that even when *far weaker assumptions are made about the data, the same conclusions are reached*. This triangulation of the analyses using both parametric and the non-parametric tests gives greater confidence in the results obtained after testing the null hypotheses H0-2 and H0-3abc.

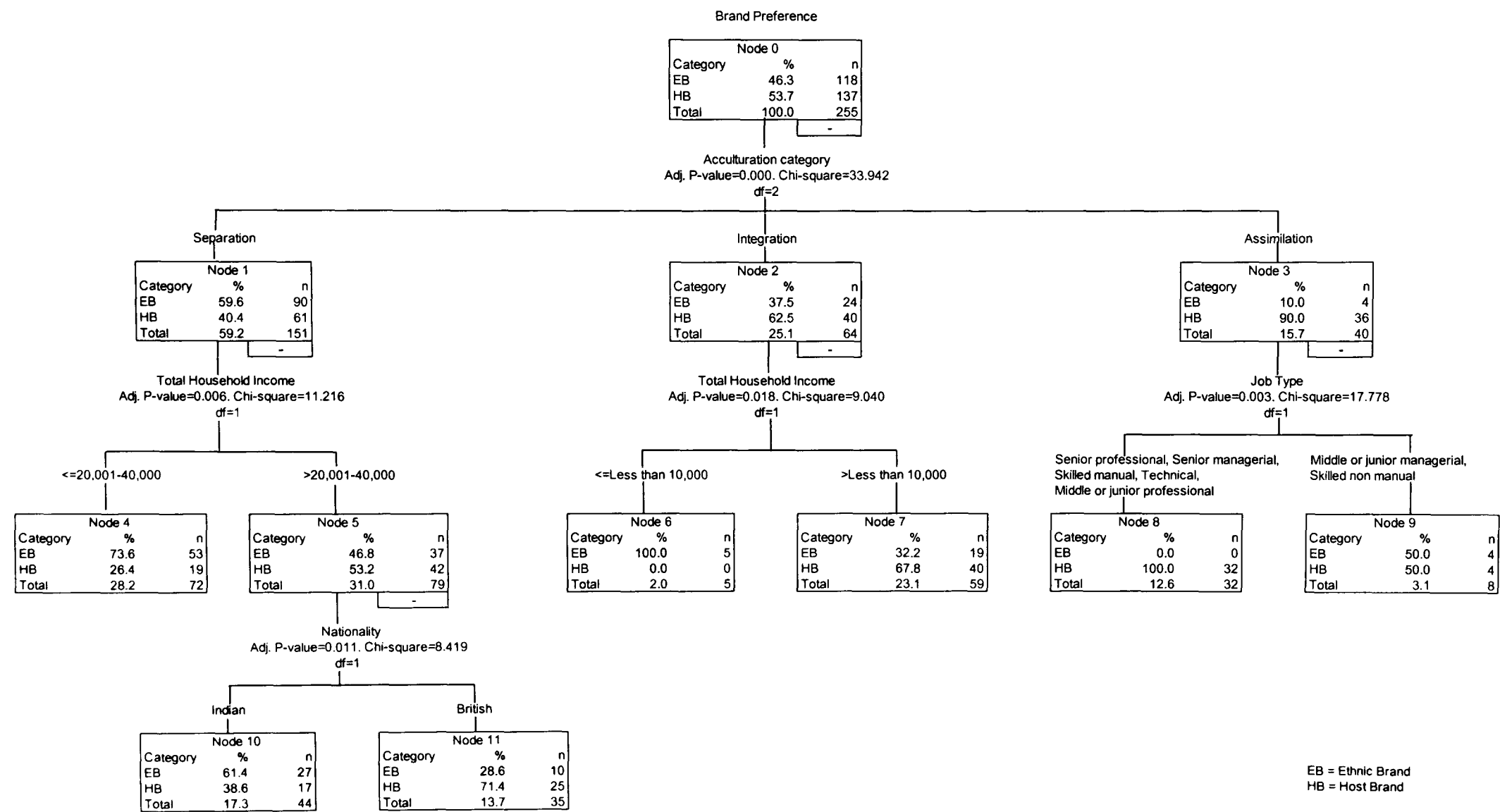
5.6 CHAID Analysis

In order to triangulate the results obtained from the parametric One-Way ANOVA, and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney U test, 'CHAID' analysis was used. CHAID (chi-square automatic interaction detection) is an efficient method for exploring relationships between predicting variables (in this case, the acculturation category and demographics) and categorical outcomes (in this case, the brand preferences). The results are reported in the form of a tree revealing the variables that yield the largest difference in the outcome percentages.

CHAID is considered to be an effective tool for identifying the combinations of demographic variables and acculturation categories, which make the greatest difference to the outcome i.e. brand preferences. CHAID answers two questions, namely, (1) which predictors make a difference? and (2) which category

combinations of these predictors yield the highest percentages in the alternate brand preference options? Thus, level by level, CHAID uses statistical tests to systematically split the data file into nodes that show significant differences with respect to the outcome options. If more than one of these relationships is significant, then CHAID selects those predictors that are the most significant. CHAID uses Bonferroni adjustments to perform each test at a stringent significance level to ensure that the overall false positive rate does not exceed the specified value of 0.05 (SPSS, 2005b). Figure 5.5 presents the results from the CHAID analysis.

Figure 5.5 Results from the CHAID Analysis



The CHAID tree shows that focusing on brand preferences as the outcome variable, even when acculturation category is not used as a first forced variable, the CHAID automatically selects acculturation category as the first node of split ($p=0.000$), showing distinct separation, integration and assimilation categories. This indicates that the three acculturation categories are different from each other in terms of their brand preferences and that for this sample these categories are the most important differentiators of brand preference. The same results were found earlier when the parametric One-Way ANOVA and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed. This increases confidence in the results, since all three tests arrive at the same conclusion. Thus the CHAID analysis adds to the previous tests used to compare groups by showing that acculturation category made the greatest difference to the outcome i.e. brand preference.

CHAID is considered to be exploratory in nature and are usually followed by alternate statistical analysis such as ANOVA (Edwards et al., 2006). This is because CHAID has inherent inferential difficulties due to the statistical significance tests being sequential, with the latter effects dependent on the earlier ones. Whereas, in case of ANOVA, all the effects are fit simultaneously and not level by level making it a more definitive test. A CHAID tree model can be chosen if the overall risk estimate for that model is within acceptable limits, which has been discussed later in this subsection (SPSS, 2005b). In this study, within the acceptable risk estimates, the alternative CHAID tree displays consistently showed that acculturation categories were the primary differentiators of brand preference. Also demographic factors consistently came up as secondary differentiators of brand preference.

Although the focus of this study is to look at the effect of acculturation on brand preference, the relationship between demographic factors and brand preference for specific acculturation categories from the CHAID tree has been looked at. For the separation and integration categories, the next best differentiator of brand preferences, after acculturation category, is total household income. Respondents with high household incomes tend to prefer host brands more often. This may be because the higher household income may have made experimentation a possibility for these respondents. For respondents in the assimilation category, it is job type rather than household income which is the next best differentiator of brand preferences. Those in middle and junior managerial or skilled non-manual jobs preferred host and ethnic brands in equal numbers. This may be due to the fact that these assimilated respondents may be working in sectors like retailing or services which deal with ethnic brands.

To summarise, the observations from the CHAID tree are in line with the tests used to compare groups as shown in Section 5.5. Acculturation is a key differentiator of brand preferences amongst British Indians. Of the total population surveyed, ethnic and host brands were preferred in approximately equal numbers, 46.3% and 53.7% respectively. However, when respondents are grouped according to their acculturation categories, greater clarity emerges in their preferences for ethnic and host brands. Thus respondents in the separation category preferred ethnic brands in greater numbers (60%), whereas respondents in the integration and assimilation categories preferred host brands in greater numbers. Of those in the integration category, 62.5% preferred host brands while as many as 90% of those in the assimilation category preferred host brands. The results suggest a trend from

preference for ethnic brands towards preference for host brands, as one reads the results from separation to assimilation through the integration category. Total household income, job type and nationality were found to be secondary differentiators of brand preference.

The next step was to assess the accuracy of the CHAID tree and to validate the results. The CHAID tree model presented in Figure 5.4 is 72.9% accurate overall, with a risk estimate of 0.271. As decision tree methods like CHAID do not make a global assessment of the model fit, there is no 'p' value or significance level calculated for the model in its entirety, although CHAID does perform a chi-square test at each node. Therefore, it is necessary to validate the resulting model on data other than that used to build the model. This validation helps to assess how well the CHAID tree is generalisable to the larger population. There are two ways to validate a classification tree model, *Split sample validation* and *Cross validation* (SPSS, 2005b).

Split sample validation

With split-sample validation, data are partitioned into training and test samples. The model is generated using a training sample (70%) and tested on a hold-out sample (30%) (SPSS, 2005b). In the training sample, the model is 69% accurate overall and for the test sample, the overall accuracy is 62%. The risk estimate for the training sample was 0.310 and for the test sample was 0.380. As the difference between the training and test samples, in terms of overall accuracy and the risk estimate is

minimal, the model used in this research is considered acceptable and would work well with unseen data (SPSS, 2005b).

Cross validation

Cross validation divides the sample into a number of subsamples, or folds, and is also referred to as n-fold validation (SPSS, 2005b). Tree models are generated by excluding the data from each subsample in turn. The first tree is based on all cases except those in the first sample fold; the second tree is based on all cases except those in the second sample fold, and so on. This cross validation produces a single final tree model, and the cross-validated risk estimate for the final tree is calculated as the average of the risks for all of the trees. The overall accuracy and risk estimate for the resubstitution sample is 72.9% and 0.271 respectively, which is not very different from the cross-validation sample with an overall accuracy of 68.6% and a risk estimate of 0.314. Despite choosing a 15-fold cross validation, as the difference between the resubstitution and cross-validation samples, in terms of overall accuracy and the risk estimate is minimal, the model used in this research is considered acceptable and would work well with unseen data (SPSS, 2005b).

In this section, the results of the CHAID analysis used to triangulate the results obtained from the parametric and non-parametric methods have been presented. The results from the CHAID tree corroborate these earlier results, thereby increasing confidence in them. Acculturation category is found to be the primary differentiator for the relationship with brand preference. The next best differentiators are demographics such as total household income, nationality and job type. CHAID

therefore reveals demographics to be the next best variables for explaining the relationship with brand preference. This relationship can be studied via acculturation categories, which in turn are the best predictor variables in explaining differences in brand preference. The next step in the analysis is to study the impact of acculturation on brand preference in greater detail (Section 5.7), and also to investigate the association between demographics and the acculturation categories (Section 5.8).

5.7 Acculturation categories and brand preference

Having established that acculturation categories are the primary differentiators of brand preferences, this section will consider how acculturation affects brand preference. This analysis is carried out in two ways: (1) based on the individual's attitude towards the brand; and (2) based on different types of products and services.

5.7.1 Acculturation categories and brand preference – detailed analyses

As mentioned in Chapter Four, an individual's attitude towards a brand includes a perceptive component, related to the construct of 'involvement', and an evaluative component, related to the construct of 'value' (Lee and Um, 1992; Antil, 1984). Chapter Four discussed these constructs in detail, describing their use as a theoretical basis for classifying the products and services used in this research into high or low involvement and high or low value brand classifications. Table 5.16 presents a classification of the brands used based on these dimensions.

Table 5.16 Classification of brands based on attitudes towards brands

High involvement brands	
Bollywood	Hollywood
Zee TV	ITV
Low involvement brands	
KTC Cooking Oil	Flora Cooking Oil
Shana Frozen Food	Bird's Eye Frozen Food
Mysore Sandal Soap	Dove Soap
High Value Brands	
Jet Airways	British Airways
ICICI Bank	Barclays Bank
Star Tours	Thompson Travels
Low value brands	
Parle-G Biscuits	McVities Biscuits
Rubicon Juice	Ribena Juice

The products and services included in the research were food products, financial services, travel service, entertainment service and cosmetic products. Table 5.17 presents the classification of the brands under these headings.

Table 5.17 Classification of brands based on types of products and services

Food Product Brands	
KTC Cooking Oil	Flora Cooking Oil
Parle-G Biscuits	McVities Biscuits
Rubicon Juice	Ribena Juice
Shana Frozen Food	Bird's Eye Frozen Food
Pride Olive Oil	Filipo Berio Olive Oil
Tilda Rice	Uncle Ben's Rice

Financial Services Brands	
ICICI Bank	Barclays Bank
Travel Service Brands	
Jet Airways	British Airways
Star Tours	Thompson Travels
Entertainment Service Brands	
Bollywood	Hollywood
Zee TV	ITV
Cosmetic Product Brands	
Mysore Sandal Soap	Dove Soap

Cross-tabulations using a chi-square test for independence were conducted to study the relationship between brand preference and acculturation categories. In this case, the relationship with the host and ethnic brand preferences for various product and service types, encompassing high/low involvement and high/low value brands were considered. The conditions that apply to a chi-square test were fulfilled, given that the sample was randomly selected and the lowest expected frequency in any cell was five or more (Pallant, 2007). For all of these tests, the effect size statistics such as phi coefficient or Cramer’s V (whichever is applicable) were at least medium or large. This indicates a strong association between the acculturation categories and brand preferences, where significant associations exist.

A summary of the results of the cross tabulations between brand preferences and acculturation categories, using the chi-square test for independence, is shown in Table 5.18. Brands are grouped on the basis of product or service type, high-low value and high-low involvement.

Table 5.18 Brand preference and acculturation categories–in depth analysis

Brand Classifications	Brand Preference: % Ethnic/Host	Separation	Integration	Assimilation
Overall	% Ethnic	59.6	37.5	10.0
	% Host	40.4	62.5	90.0
Pearson Chi-Square=33.942; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.365				
High Value	% Ethnic	52.8	28.1	7.1
	% Host	47.2	71.9	92.9
Pearson Chi-Square=33.651; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.356				
Low Value	% Ethnic	58.7	30.0	8.3
	% Host	41.3	70.0	91.7
Pearson Chi-Square=15.679; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.342				
High Involvement	% Ethnic	80.0	69.8	10.3
	% Host	20.0	30.2	89.7
Pearson Chi-Square=48.821; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.533				
Low Involvement	% Ethnic	32.1	21.9	16.7
	% Host	67.9	78.1	83.3
Pearson Chi-Square=5.182; Significance p=0.075; Cramer's V =0.140				
Food Products	% Ethnic	67.5	46	26.9
	% Host	32.5	54	73.1
Pearson Chi-Square=17.271; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.299				
Financial Services	% Ethnic	34	12.5	4.8
	% Host	66	87.5	95.2
Pearson Chi-Square=21.717; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.286				
Travel	% Ethnic	64.2	51.7	10.7
	% Host	35.8	48.3	89.3
Pearson Chi-Square=24.796; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.404				
Entertainment	% Ethnic	79.6	69.8	13.3
	% Host	20.4	30.2	86.7
Pearson Chi-Square=45.799; Significance p=0.000*; Cramer's V =0.510				
Cosmetics	% Ethnic	27.7	17.2	16.7
	% Host	72.3	82.8	83.3
Pearson Chi-Square=4.060; Significance p=0.131; Cramer's V =0.124				

* Significance at 0.05 level

The chi-square test for independence indicates a significant association between the acculturation categories and brand preference for the various brand classifications for all but two classifications; namely, 'low involvement brands' and 'cosmetic

brands'. This means that acculturation category was not a significant discriminator for low involvement brand preferences and cosmetic brand preferences.

Based on these observations, diagrams and charts can be constructed to depict the relationships between different acculturation categories and brand preferences. (see Figures 5.6a, 5.6b, 5.7a and 5.7b, and Charts 5.1 and 5.2). The dimensions in these diagrams and charts relate to the dimensions that were found significantly associated with acculturation categories such as overall brand preferences; high-low value and high involvement brand preferences; food products, financial services, entertainment and travel brand preferences.

Figure 5.6a Ethnic brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:

Brands classified based on involvement and value

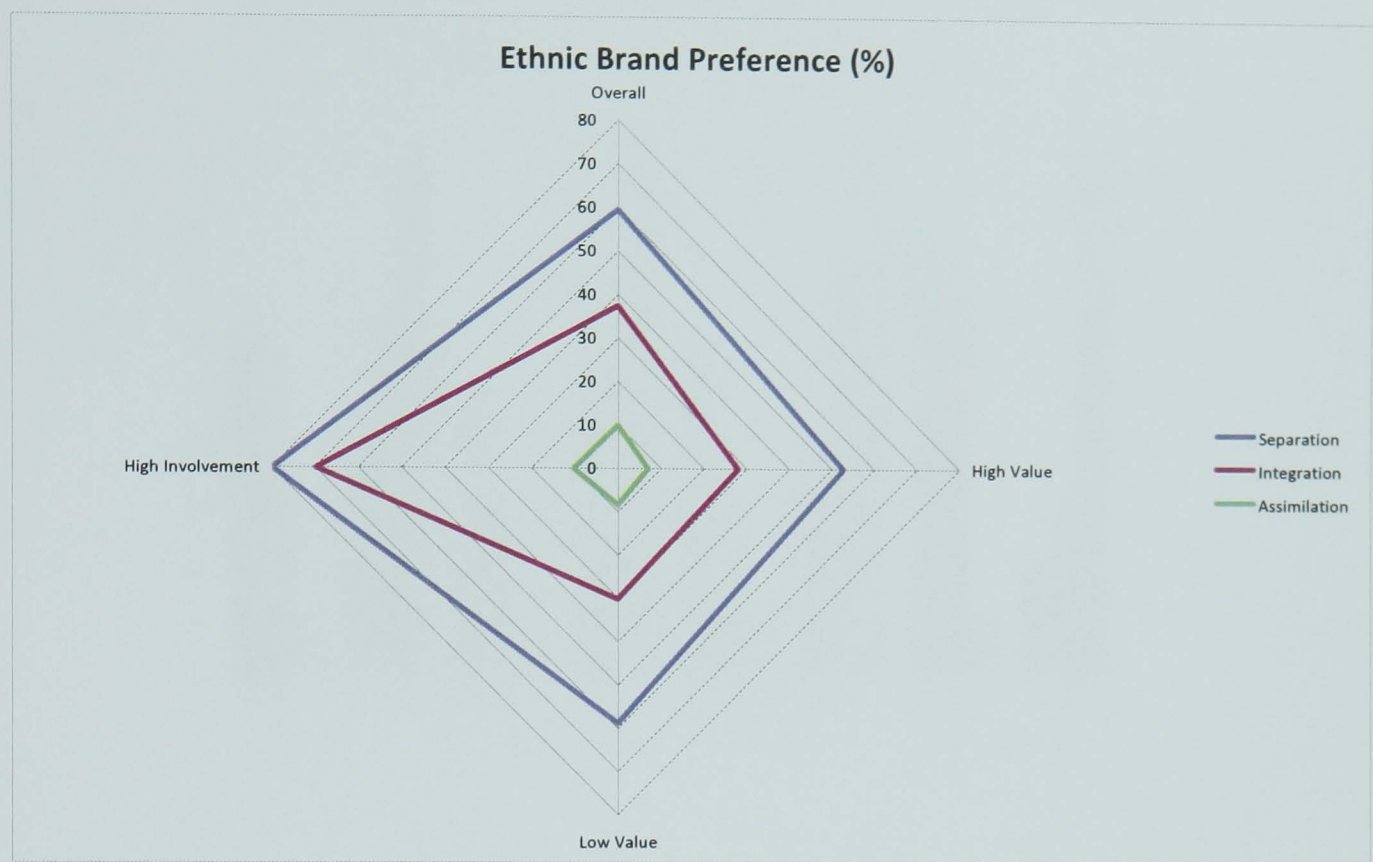


Figure 5.6b Host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:

Brands classified based on involvement and value

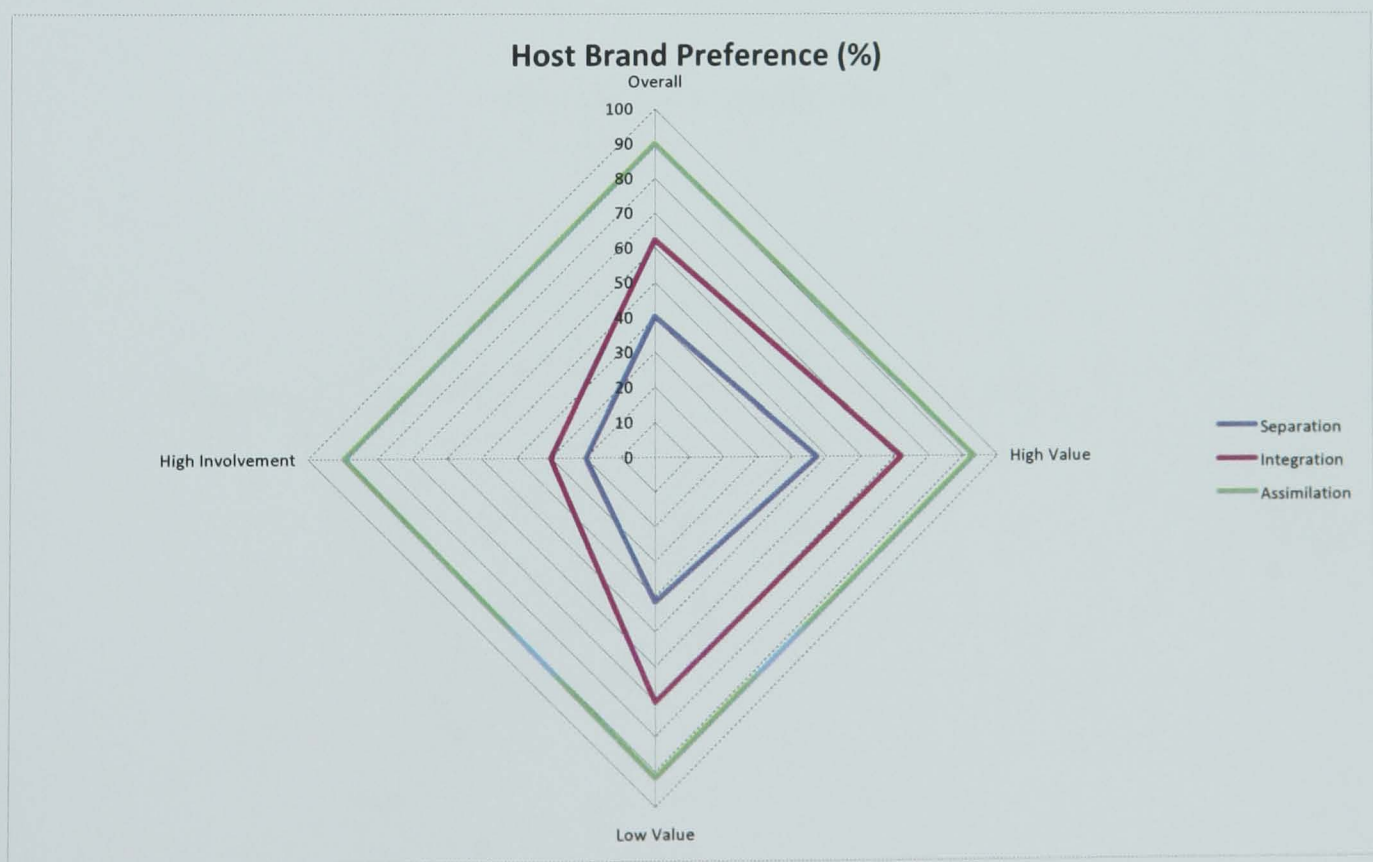


Chart 5.1 Ethnic and host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories: Brands classified based on involvement and value

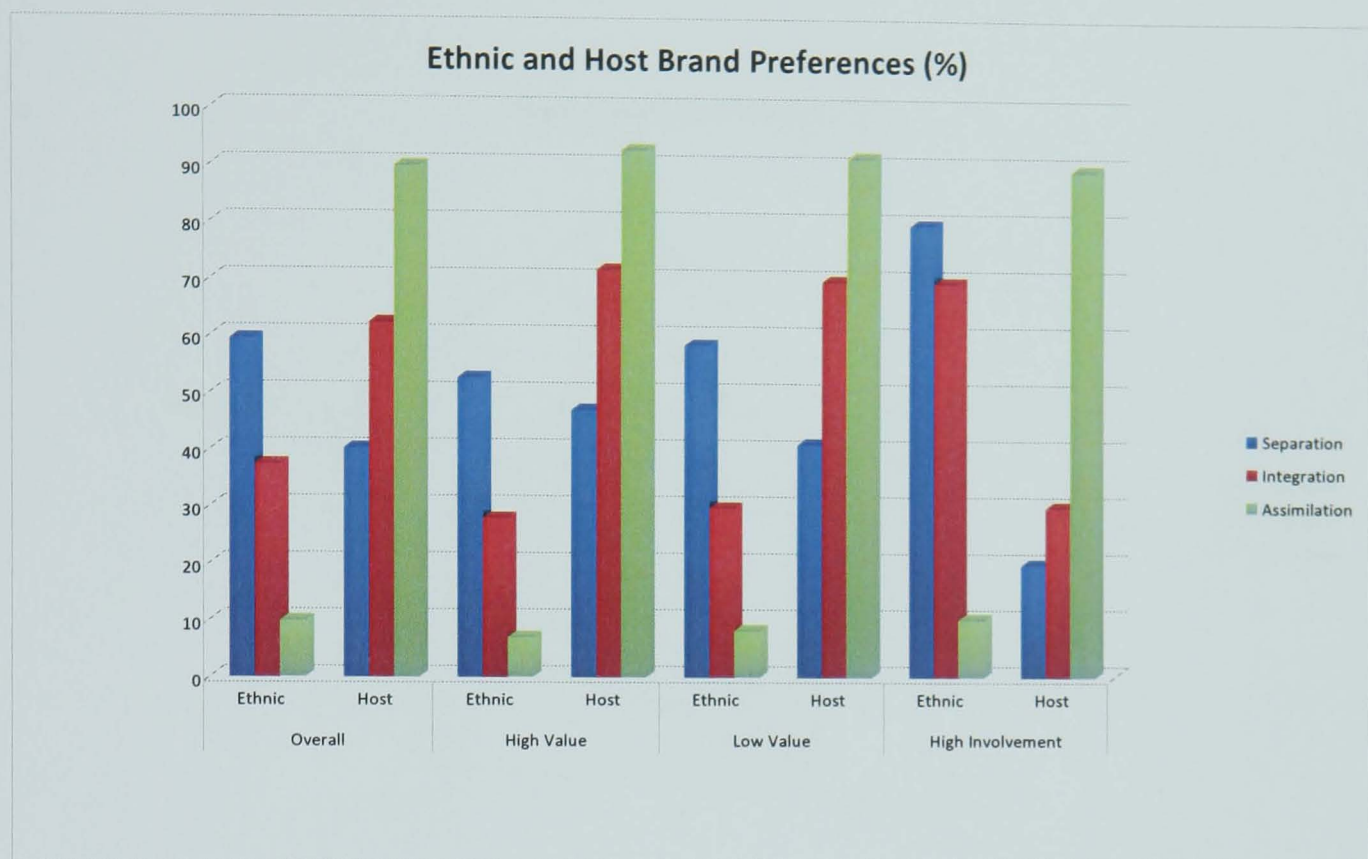


Figure 5.7a Ethnic brand preferences for the three acculturation categories: Brands classified based on types of products and services

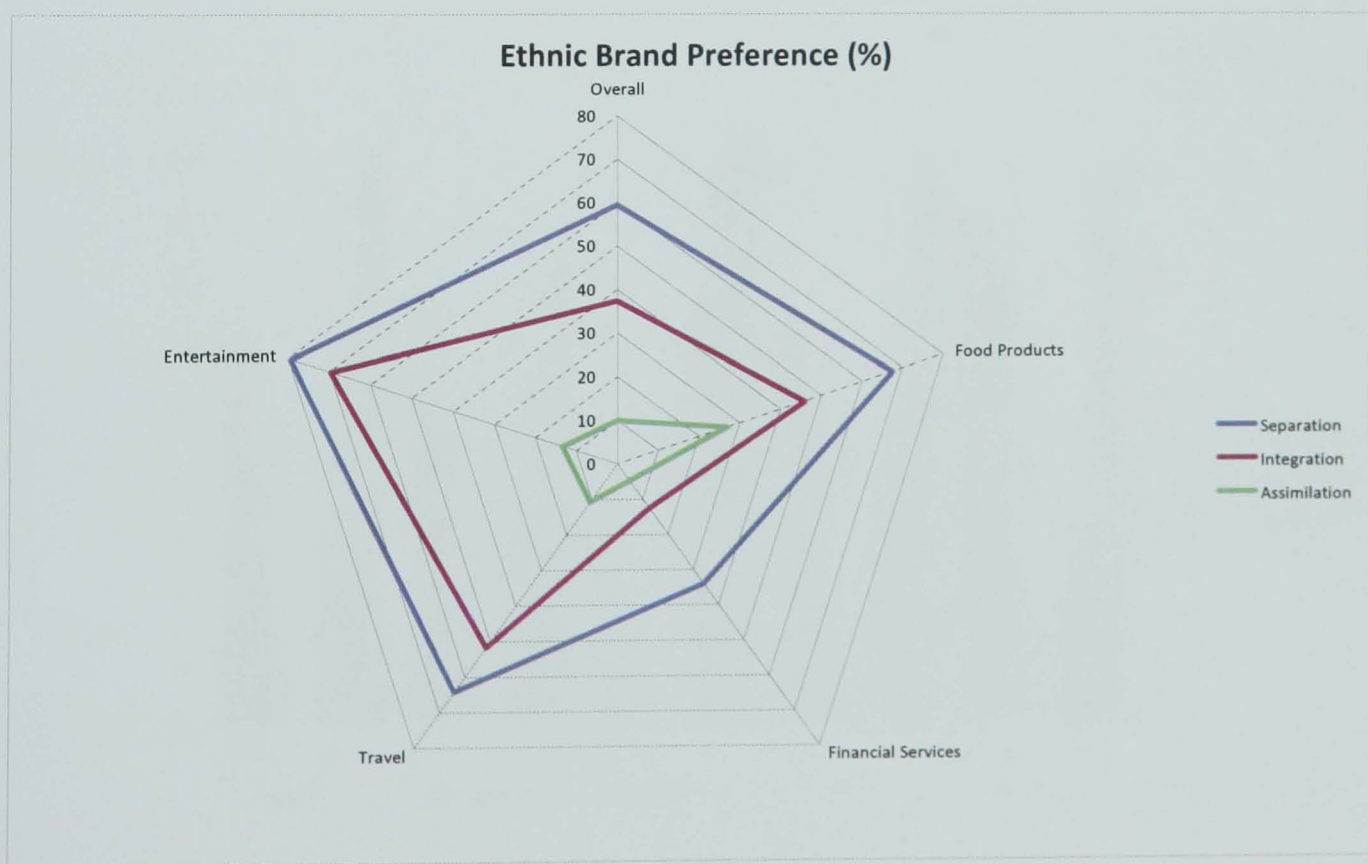


Figure 5.7b Host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories:
Brands classified based on types of products and services

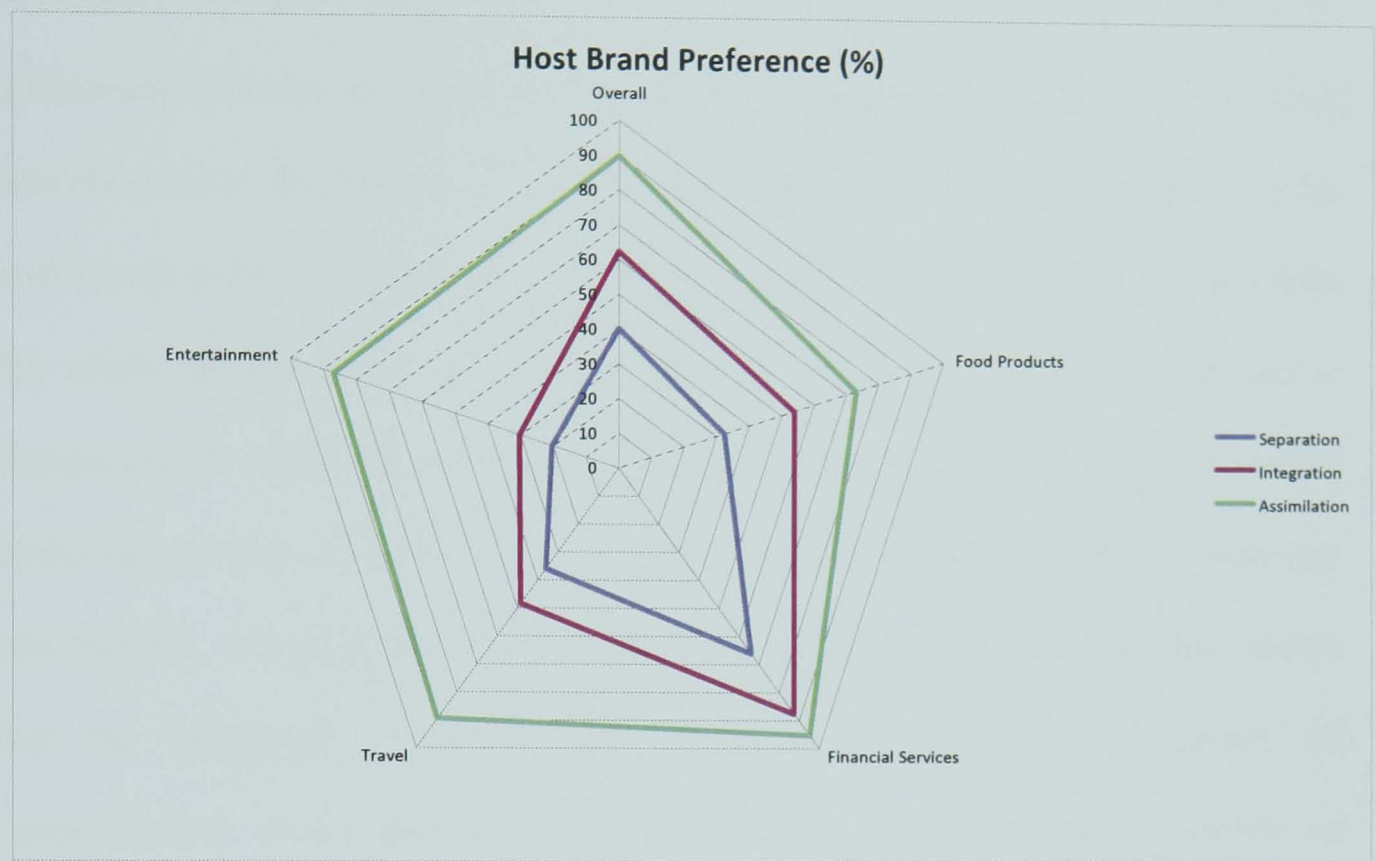
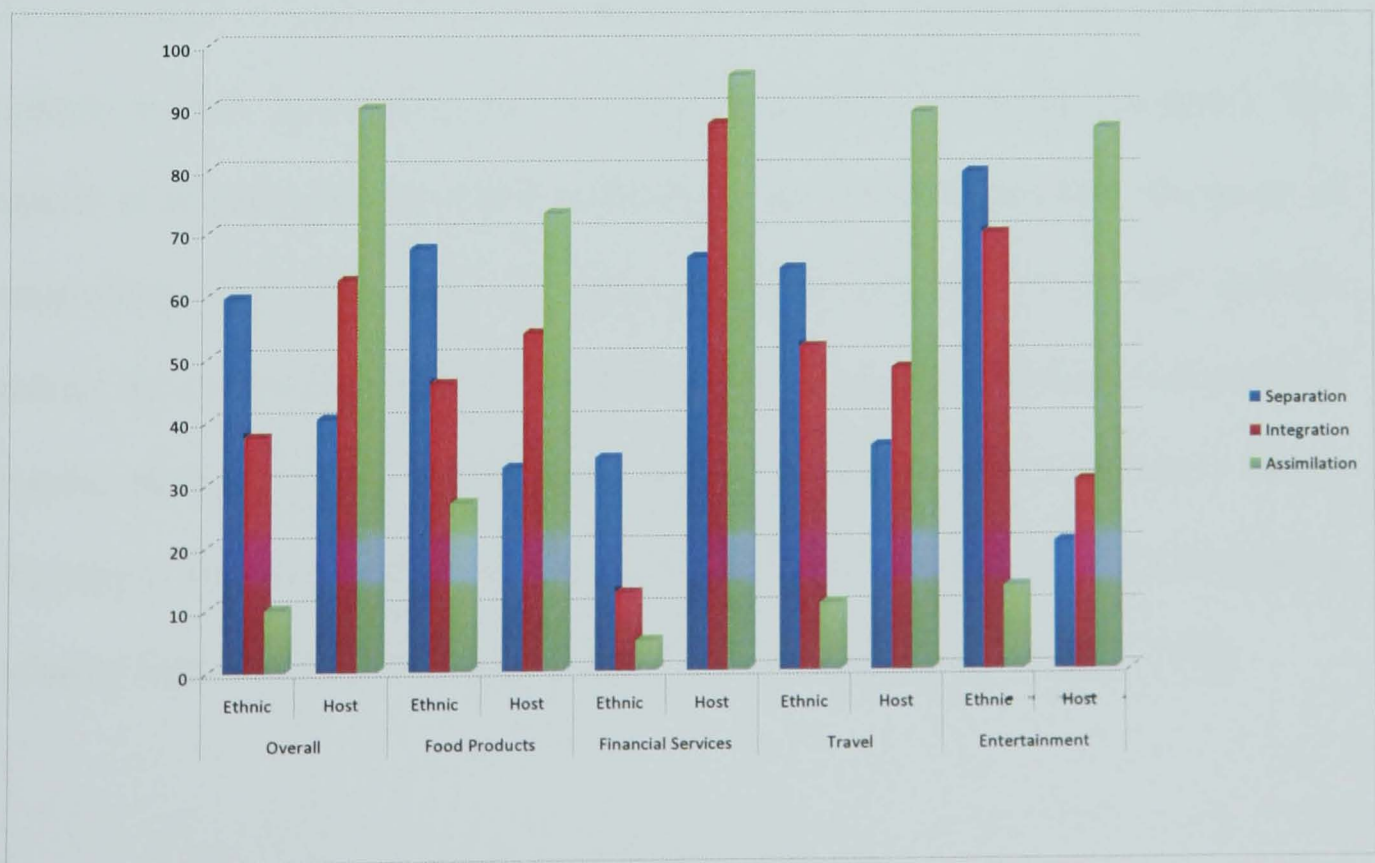


Chart 5.2 Ethnic and host brand preferences for the three acculturation categories: Brands classified based on types of products and services



Overall, consumers in the separated category are shown to prefer ethnic brands more often than host brands; consumers in the assimilated category prefer host brands more often than ethnic brands; and consumers in the integrated category show brand preferences between those of the separated and assimilated categories. The only exception is for the financial services brand, where the separated consumers prefer host brands more often than ethnic brands. Overall, these results are consistent with the results obtained from parametric one-way ANOVA and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests. These results still hold true even after the brands are broken down into product and service types and according to whether they are high-low involvement, or high-low value. Breaking down the results in this way also shows that the integrated consumers are closer to the separated consumers on ‘entertainment’ brand preferences, and closer to the assimilated consumers in relation to their ‘financial services’ brand preferences.

5.7.2 Analysis of decision-maker questions

As mentioned in Section 5.3, respondents were asked whether they were decision makers in their households for the different product or service categories. The impact of acculturation on brand preferences was compared between the group of respondents who ‘were’ and the group of respondents who ‘were not’ decision makers for the food product, financial services, travel, entertainment and cosmetic brands. Both parametric Independent Samples t-test and non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test were carried out. Table 5.19 presents the results for the Independent Samples t-test and Table 5.20 shows the results for the Mann-Whitney U test.

Table 5.19 Decision maker versus non-decision maker: Results of the Independent Samples T-test

Brands	Group Means		Sig. (2-tailed)
	Decision maker	Non-decision maker	
Food Products	1.4397	1.4231	0.837
Financial Services	1.74	1.81	0.183
Travel	1.4914	1.4444	0.625
Entertainment	1.3468	1.3269	0.801
Cosmetics	1.77	1.76	0.866

* The mean difference tested at 0.05 level

Table 5.20 Decision maker versus non-decision maker: Results of the Mann-Whitney U test

Brands	Z-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Food Products	-0.206	0.837
Financial Services	-1.278	0.201
Travel	-0.491	0.624
Entertainment	-0.253	0.800
Cosmetics	-0.169	0.865

* The mean difference tested at 0.05 level

As seen in Tables 5.19 and 5.20, the decision makers do not differ from the non-decision makers across different types of products and services. Therefore, whether the respondents ‘were’ or ‘were not’ the decision makers for these products or services did not discriminate between them in terms of their expressed brand preferences.

5.8 Tests for the relationship between demographics and acculturation categories

Chapter Two reviewed the evidence on whether demographic factors such as age, gender, income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the host country; generational difference, job status and profession, nationality or residency are associated with acculturation. The purpose of this section is to check whether the demographic variables are associated with acculturation, and if so, to study the nature of the relationship between each demographic variable and the acculturation categories. Correlation analysis can be used to examine whether demographics are associated with acculturation (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005; Pallant, 2007); and has been used by several researchers (Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999; Padilla, 1980; Marin et al., 1987, Szapocznik et al., 1978). Moreover, chi-square test has also been used by authors (Padilla, 1980; Khairullah and Khairullah, 1999) to study the relationship between demographics and acculturation. Thus it was deemed appropriate to use correlation analyses to identify whether demographics are associated with acculturation, and cross tabulations to study the relationship between demographics and acculturation in more detail. Table 5.21 presents the results of the Spearman Rank order correlation analysis.

Table 5.21 Correlation Analysis-Spearman’s Rho

Demographics	Results	Acculturation Category	Percent variance
Age group	Correlation Coefficient	.245**	6.0%
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	255	

Gender	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.156* .013 255	2.43%
Total household income	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.164** .009 255	2.7%
Education	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.323** .000 255	10.43%
Religious affiliation	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.189** .002 255	3.57%
Length of stay in the UK	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.176** .005 255	3.09%
Generation	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.261** .000 255	6.8%
Job type	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.116 .064 255	1.35%
Nationality	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.394** .000 255	15.52%

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.21 shows that all demographics except ‘job type’ correlate with the acculturation categories. The demographic variable ‘education’ is the only variable

to be negatively correlated with the acculturation categories. The final column presents the percentage shared variance between each correlated pair. Although some variables, such as gender, explain only 2.43% of the variance in respondents' acculturation, it is important to acknowledge that this is only one of many variables that relate to the acculturation category. Overall, the demographic variables included in the study account for about 52% of the variance observed. Therefore, it is important to study all those demographic variables that are significantly correlated.

Having established that age, gender, income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the host country; generational difference; and nationality or residency are all associated with the acculturation categories, cross tabulations using a chi-square test for independence were used to study the relationship between these demographic factors and the acculturation categories. The conditions that apply to a chi-square test were fulfilled, given that the sample was randomly selected and the lowest expected frequency in any cell was five or more (Pallant, 2007). For all of these chi-square tests, the effect size statistics such as phi coefficient or Cramer's V, whichever was applicable, was at least medium or large. This indicates a strong relationship between the demographic variables and the acculturation categories, where significant relationships exist.

The results of the cross tabulation between the various demographic factors and acculturation categories, using the chi-square test for independence, are shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22 Relationship between demographics and acculturation categories

ACCULTURATION CATEGORIES				
	Separation	Integration	Assimilation	
Age Group¹				
34 years and below	49.7%	18.8%	22.5%	
35-54 years	40.4%	64.1%	70.0%	
55 years and above	9.9%	17.2%	7.5%	
Gender²				
Male	60.3%	57.8%	32.5%	
Female	39.7%	42.2%	67.5%	
Total household income (in £ per annum)³				
40,000 and less	47.7%	40.6%	22.5%	
40,000-80,000	34.4%	43.8%	42.5%	
80,001 and above	17.9%	15.6%	35.0%	
Education⁴				
A-level and below	8.6%	28.1%	17.5%	
Diploma/University graduate	33.8%	45.3%	60.0%	
Post-graduate/Masters/Doctors	57.6%	26.6%	22.5%	
Religious affiliation⁵				
Hindus	84.1%	64.1%	80.0%	
Christians	2.0%	4.7%	7.5%	
Others	13.9%	31.3%	12.5%	
Length of stay in the UK⁶				
Born in the UK	10.6%	12.5%	30.0%	
0-5 years	31.1%	12.5%	7.5%	
6-20 years	39.1%	28.1%	10.0%	
21 years and above	19.2%	46.9%	52.5%	
Generational status in the UK⁷				
First generation	85.4%	78.1%	50.0%	
Second generation	14.6%	21.9%	50.0%	
Nationality⁸				
British	46.4%	76.6%	95.0%	
Indian	53.6%	23.4%	5.0%	
LENGTH OF STAY IN THE UK				
	Born in the UK	0-5 years	6-20 years	21 years and above
Age group⁹				
34 years and below	47.2%	67.2%	42.0%	7.5%
35-54 years	52.8%	29.3%	55.6%	61.3%
55 years and above	0.0%	3.4%	2.5%	31.3%
Gender¹⁰				
Male	30.6%	65.5%	63.0%	46.2%
Female	69.4%	34.5%	37.0%	53.8%
Education¹¹				
A-level and below	27.8%	5.2%	8.6%	22.5%
Diploma/University graduate	55.6%	31.0%	28.4%	53.8%
Post-graduate/Masters/Doctors	16.7%	63.8%	63.0%	23.8%
GENERATIONAL STATUS				

	First generation	Second generation	
Education¹²			
A-level and below	11.5%	14.7%	
Diploma/University graduate	36.0%	77.5%	
Post graduate/Masters/Doctors	52.5%	7.8%	
	NATIONALITY		
	British	Indian	Other
Education¹³			
A-level and below	20.8%	2.0%	62.5%
Diploma/University graduate	52.3%	24.5%	25.0%
Post graduate/Masters/Doctors	26.8%	73.5%	12.5%

Significance levels (p): 1=0.000, 2= 0.006, 3=0.021, 4=0.000, 5=0.008, 6=0.000, 7=0.000, 8=0.000, 9=0.000, 10=0.009, 11=0.000, 12=0.000, and 13=0.000

Table 5.21 illustrates significant associations between acculturation and all of the demographic factors except for job type. Moreover, Table 5.22 shows that there are significant differences among the three acculturation categories on eight demographic variables, namely, age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the host country, generational status and nationality.

A larger percentage (49.7%) of separated individuals fall into the age group of 34 years and below compared to 18.8% younger individuals in the integrated category and 22.5% younger individuals in the assimilated category. Likewise, a higher percentage (70.0%) of assimilated individuals fall into the 35-54 years age group and a larger percentage (17.2%) of integrated individuals fall into the 55 years and above age group compared to the individuals in the other two acculturation categories.

Further analysis of the reasons for these observations show that a larger percentage (67.2%) of those who have lived in the UK for 0-5 years are 34 years old or

younger. A higher percentage of those born in the UK, those who have lived here for between 6 and 20 years, and those who have lived here for 21 years and above (52.8%, 55.6%, and 61.3% respectively), are between 35 and 54 years old. Finally, a large percentage (31.3%) of those who have lived in the UK for 21 years and above, fall into the age group of 55 years and above. This indicates that a large percentage of separated individuals are from the younger age group and have lived for a short time in the UK, while a large percentage of assimilated individuals are from the 35-54 years age group and were either born or have lived in the UK for a long time. Moreover, a large percentage of integrated individuals are 55 years of age or older compared with individuals in this age group in the other two acculturation categories. These integrated individuals have also lived in the UK for 21 years or more.

A larger percentage (60.3%) of the separated individuals are male, compared with 57.8% males in the integrated category and 32.5% males in the assimilated category. This contrasts with the assimilated individuals, where a higher percentage (67.5%) were females. The percentages of males and females were more equal (57.8% and 42.2% respectively) in the integrated category. Further analysis revealed that a greater percentage (65.5%) of male respondents have lived in the UK for 0-5 years, compared with only 34.5% of females. Larger percentages of female respondents were born or have lived for 21 years or more in the UK (69.4% and 53.8%). This shows that in the population surveyed, a high percentage of males are recent immigrants.

A larger percentage (47.7%) of separated individuals fall into the total annual household income band of '£40,000 and under' compared with 40.6% in the '£40,000 and under' band in the integrated category and 22.5% in the '£40,000 and under' band in the assimilated category. Likewise, a higher percentage (35.0%) of assimilated individuals fall into the total household income band of above £80,000 per annum and a larger percentage (43.8%) of integrated individuals fall into the total household income band of £40,000-£80,000 per annum compared with individuals in the other two acculturation categories. This shows that a large percentage of assimilated individuals are in the higher income range, a large percentage of separated individuals are in the lower income range and a large percentage of integrated individuals are in the middle income range.

A higher percentage (57.6%) of separated individuals had achieved post-graduate qualification compared with 26.6% in the integrated category and 22.5% in the assimilated category. Likewise, a bigger percentage (60.0%) of assimilated individuals were graduates or diploma holders compared with those in the other two acculturation categories. Further analysis reveals that a large percentage of those born in the UK (55.6%) hold diploma or graduate status and a higher percentage of diploma holders or graduates belong to the second generation (77.5%) and hold British nationality (52.3%). A large percentage (63.8%) of those who have lived for 5 years or less in the UK are post-graduates, with a high percentage of post-graduates belonging to the first generation (52.5%) and holding Indian nationality (73.5%). Since a big percentage of assimilated individuals who are diploma holders or graduates, hold British nationality, belong to the second generation and were largely born in the UK, they probably also received their schooling here. In contrast,

a large percentage of separated individuals who are post-graduates, hold Indian nationality, belong to the first generation and largely have lived here between 0 and 5 years, probably implying that they may not have been schooled in the UK. This may explain why they are more separated despite their impressive educational attainments.

A larger percentage (84.1%) of separated individuals are Hindus compared with 80% Hindus in the integrated category and 64.1% Hindus in the assimilated category. Likewise, a higher percentage (7.5%) of assimilated individuals are Christians compared with 2.0% Christians in the separated category and 4.7% Christians in the integrated category. However, overall there were very few Christians in the sample.

Higher percentages (31.1% and 39.1%) of separated individuals have lived in the UK for 0-5 years and for 6-20 years respectively compared with 12.5% and 28.1% for the individuals in the integrated category, and 7.5% and 10.0% for individuals in the assimilated category. Likewise, larger percentages (30.0% and 52.5%) of assimilated individuals were born or have lived in the UK for 21 years or more respectively compared with individuals in the other two categories. A large percentage of the integrated individuals have lived in the UK for 21 years or more. Overall, a large percentage of separated individuals have lived for a short time in the UK, a large percentage of integrated individuals have lived longer in the UK and a large percentage of assimilated individuals were either born or have lived for a very long time in the UK.

In testing for association between the generational status of British Indians and their acculturation category, it was necessary to merge the third generation and second generation groups, since there were only few individuals in the former group. A larger percentage (85.4%) of separated individuals were from the first generation compared with 78.1% first generation individuals in the integrated category and 50% first generation individuals in the assimilated category. Likewise, a larger percentage (50%) of assimilated individuals were from the second generation compared with the second generation individuals in the other two acculturation categories. The percentages of integrated individuals in the first and second generations (78.1% and 21.9% respectively) were in between those of the other two acculturation categories.

A larger percentage (53.6%) of separated individuals hold Indian nationality compared with 23.4% Indian nationals in the integrated category and 5% Indian nationals in the assimilated category. Likewise, a higher percentage (95%) of assimilated individuals hold British nationality compared with the individuals in the other two acculturation categories.

Since Spearman Rho indicates a significant correlation (see Table 5.21) and cross tabulations show a significant relationship (see Table 5.22); between the demographic factors (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generational status, nationality) and the acculturation categories; the following null hypotheses are rejected and the respective alternate hypotheses are accepted:

Table 5.23 Hypothesis testing for relationship between demographics and acculturation categories for British Indians

Null hypotheses rejected	Alternate hypotheses accepted
H0-4a <i>The age of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4a <i>The age of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4b <i>The gender of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4b <i>The gender of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4c <i>The total household income of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4c <i>The total household income of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4d <i>The education level of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4d <i>The education level of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4e <i>The religious affiliation of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4e <i>The religious affiliation of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4f <i>The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4f <i>The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4g <i>The generation to which British Indians belong is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4g <i>The generation to which British Indians belong is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>
H0-4i <i>The nationality of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>	H1-4i <i>The nationality of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category</i>

However, since Spearman’s Rho showed *no significant correlation* between the job type and acculturation category; $r=0.116$, $n=255$, $p=0.064$ and the cross tabulations showed no significant relationship between the job type and acculturation category, the null hypothesis **H0-4h** *The job type of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category* is accepted.

5.9 Tests for demographics as moderators of the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference

Chapter Three explained the need to look at whether demographic factors moderate the relationship between acculturation and brand preference. Baron and Kenny (1986) explain that the most appropriate method of testing for a moderator relationship, when both independent and moderator variables are categorical, is a ‘Two-Way ANOVA’ test. This technique looks at both the individual and the joint effect of two independent variables (acculturation category and demographics) on one dependent variable (brand preference). Table 5.24 presents the results for the Two-Way ANOVA test.

Table 5.24 Results for the Two-Way ANOVA test

Dependent variable: Brand Preference

Demographics and acculturation category	F-statistic	Significance
Age	0.970	0.446
Acculturation	11.300	0.000*
Age * acculturation	0.699	0.709
Gender	0.077	0.782
Acculturation	17.712	0.000*
Gender * acculturation	0.149	0.861
Total household income	3.521	0.001*
Acculturation	11.713	0.000*
Total household income * acculturation	0.277	0.994
Education	0.471	0.829
Acculturation	7.090	0.001*
Education * acculturation	0.294	0.968
Religious affiliation	1.531	0.181
Acculturation	3.539	0.031*
Religious affiliation * acculturation	0.374	0.934
Length of stay in the U.K.	0.718	0.657
Acculturation	11.720	0.000*

Length of stay in the U.K. * acculturation	0.660	0.789
Generation	0.323	0.808
Acculturation	8.441	0.000*
Generation * acculturation	0.728	0.628
Job Type	1.922	0.050*
Acculturation	8.561	0.000*
Job Type * acculturation	0.681	0.811
Nationality	.288	.750
Acculturation	5.186	.006*
Nationality * acculturation	.464	.762

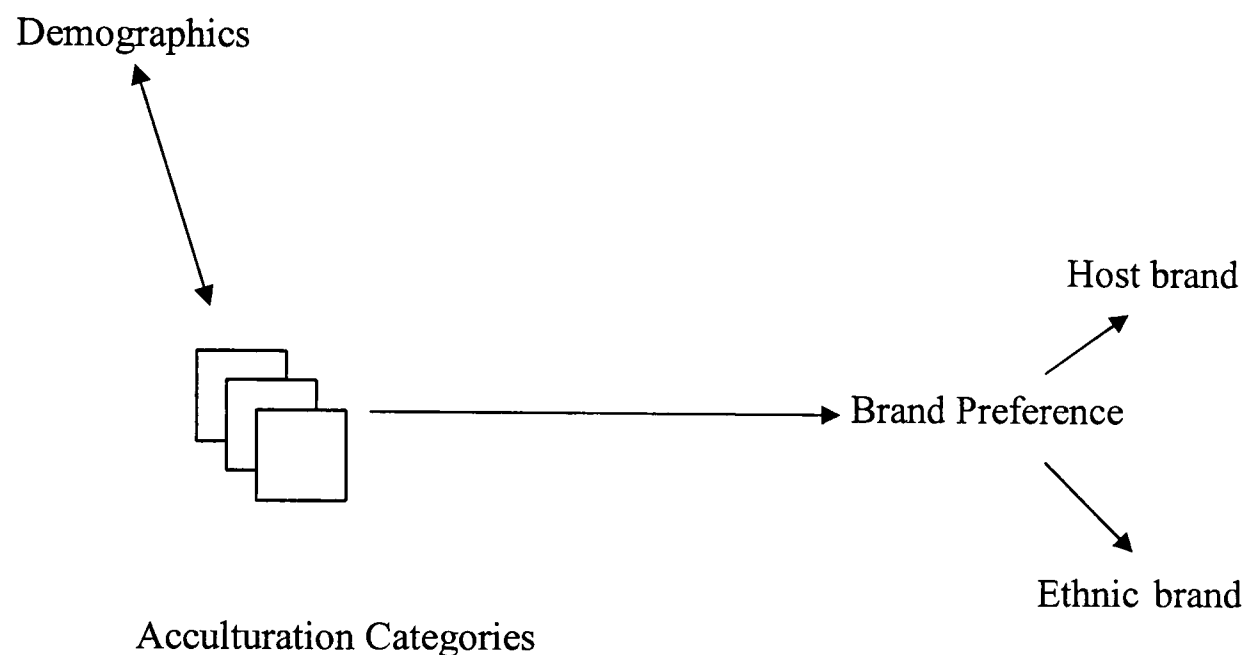
* Significance at 0.05 level

The two-way ANOVA shows that for each of the identified demographic variables (moderators), the interaction effect between the demographic variable and the acculturation category on brand preference is not significant. Since there is no significant interaction effect, only the main effect of acculturation on brand preference is interpretable. This confirms that in order to explain the effect of one independent variable, it is not necessary to specify the level of the other independent variable. In order to account for the unequal group sizes, the tests were re-run with a more stringent significance level of 0.01. The results again are not significant. Also, to adjust for the possible overlap of effects due to unequal sample sizes, Type III and Type IV sum of squares were used to adjust the unequal sample sizes. Once again the results show no interaction effect between the moderator variable and the acculturation category over brand preference for each of the demographic variables considered. There is predominantly only one main effect seen in each of these analyses. This implies that the main effect of acculturation category is the only effect which is consistently significant on the dependent variable brand preference. Also, only two demographic factors (total household income and job type) showed significant main effect on brand preference.

These results are consistent with the output from the CHAID analysis. Although acculturation category was not used as a first forced variable, the CHAID analysis automatically selected the variable as the first node of split. The associated 'p' value of 0.000 indicates that acculturation category is indeed the best differentiator of brand preference. The next best differentiators of brand preference in the CHAID tree were total household income and job type, a finding which is confirmed by the Two-Way ANOVA shown above. Since the interaction effect between demographics and acculturation category on brand preference is not significant, the null hypotheses H0-5 *The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) do not moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference* is accepted.

On the basis of these findings, a modified version of Figure 4.5 is now included. Figure 5.8 shows the amended figure capturing the role of demographics in the study of acculturation and brand preference.

Figure 5.8 Role of demographics in the study of acculturation and brand preference



As seen in Figure 5.8, demographics are associated with acculturation categories, and acculturation categories in turn affect brand preference. Furthermore, demographics do not moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.

5.10 Profiles of the three acculturation categories

Based on the effect of acculturation on brand preference and the role of demographics in determining acculturation, this section will present the profiles of the three acculturation categories.

Separated category

These individuals are distinctive in terms of their household income and nationality. Around half of these individuals (47.7%) have a total household income of £40,000 or less per annum (compared with 42% in the total population). Half of the separated

group (49.7%) is below 34 years of age (compared with 37.6% for the total population). Notably this group has more males (60.3%) than females (compared with the male-female ratio in the total population which is close to 55%:45%). The educational attainment of the separated British Indians is contra-intuitive, with 57.6% of these individuals having achieved post-graduate level education. The separated group is made up of 'fresh-off-the boat' individuals and over two-thirds (70.2%) having been in the UK for fewer than 20 years (compared with 54.2% in the total population surveyed). Having shorter lengths of stay in the UK than those in the other acculturation categories, it is no surprise that most separated individuals (85.4%) are first generation (against 78% for the total population surveyed). Over half of these individuals (53.6%) hold Indian nationality compared to just over a third (38.4%) in the total population. These separated British Indians are more likely to prefer ethnic brands over host brands, than those who are either integrated or assimilated.

Integrated category

Nearly half (43.8%) of the integrated British Indians have an annual total household income of between £40,000 and £80,000 (compared with 38% for the total population). A larger percentage (17.2%) of the integrated individuals were in the 55 years and above age group in comparison with individuals of this age group in the other two acculturation categories. Close to half of the integrated individuals (46.9%) have lived in the UK for over 21 years (compared with 31.4% for the total population surveyed). 78.1% of the group belong to the first generation, with 21.9% being second generation. These numbers are in line with the first and second generation percentages for the total population surveyed (78% and 22%

respectively). The male-female ratio of 58%:42% for this group is near to that of the total population. The majority (76.6%) of integrated individuals hold British nationality (as against 61.6% for the total population surveyed). While in most brand classifications, the integrated individuals show a brand preference pattern that lies between those of the separated and assimilated individuals, they sway closer to the separated individuals on 'high involvement brands' and 'entertainment brands', and are closer to the assimilated individuals on the 'financial services brands'.

Assimilated category

35% of British Indians in the assimilated category have annual household incomes of £80,000 and above, with another 42.5% falling into the £40,000-£80,000 range (the corresponding percentages for the total population surveyed are 20% and 38%). A large percentage (70%) of the assimilated British Indians are between 35 and 54 years (compared with 51% for the total population surveyed). As with separated individuals, it is the length of stay in the UK, rather than educational attainment that sets the assimilated individuals apart. An overwhelming majority (82.5%) have lived in the UK for over 21 years or were born in the UK (compared with 45.5% for the total population studied). Consequently, half of the assimilated group (50%) are second generation British Indians (compared with 22% for the total population surveyed). While all three categories of British Indians are resident in the UK, it is interesting to note that the assimilated group is almost entirely (95%) made up of those holding British nationality (the corresponding number for the total population is 61.6%). The findings also show that a large percentage of assimilated individuals are females, making up over two-thirds (67.5%) of the assimilated population (compared with 44.7% females in the total population surveyed). The assimilated

British Indians are more likely to prefer host brands over ethnic brands than those in the separated or integrated categories.

5.11 Summary

This chapter has presented the data analysis results for the research. It started with a discussion about preparing and cleaning the data for the main analysis. The way in which the acculturation categories were measured was also described. During this initial data analysis, the sample profile was described and summarised in terms of demographics; acculturation specific additional factors such as respondents' length of stay in the UK, their generational status and their nationality; and in terms of brand decision-making patterns.

Cluster analysis revealed three clusters of respondents corresponding to the three acculturation categories, namely; separation, integration and assimilation of Berry's (1980) taxonomy. A One-Way ANOVA test on these three clusters showed them to be significantly different from each other.

Statistical tests to compare the three acculturation categories as measured by the CLSI were carried out. Both the One-Way ANOVA test and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three acculturation categories to be significantly different from each other in their mean scores on brand preference. The Post Hoc Tukey tests for the One-Way ANOVA and the Mann-Whitney U tests for Kruskal-Wallis also showed significant differences in terms of brand preference between each of the pairs, namely, (1) separation and assimilation categories (2) assimilation and integration categories, and also (3) separation and integration categories. The results revealed that British Indian consumers in the assimilation category prefer

host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than those in the other categories. Consumers in the separation category prefer ethnic brands more often and host brands less often than individuals in the other categories. Finally, consumers in the integration category prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the separation category; and prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the assimilation category. Despite the three categories of acculturation being significantly different from each other on brand preference, an analysis of the individuals in the integrated category revealed that they are closer to the separated category than to the assimilated category on their second highest categorical percentage on the CLSI.

CHAID analysis searched for relationships between the predictor variables such as demographics and acculturation categories and the categorical outcome of brand preference. The results showed that acculturation categories are the primary differentiators for the brand preference. This is consistent with the results of the One-Way ANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis tests performed earlier. Furthermore, CHAID also described the demographics to be the secondary differentiators for the relationship with brand preference. The result established that the relationship between demographic factors and brand preference could be studied via acculturation.

The brands were further grouped: (1) based on the individual's attitude towards the brand, as 'high involvement', 'low involvement', 'high value', and 'low value' brands; and (2) based on the types of products and services, as 'food product', 'financial services', 'travel', 'entertainment' and 'cosmetic' brands. The relationship between the three acculturation categories and these different brand classifications

were studied using cross tabulations with chi-square test for independence. The results showed that there is no significant relationship between acculturation categories and 'low involvement' or 'cosmetic' brand preferences. Also, the separated consumers prefer host brands more often than ethnic brands for financial services brand. For all the other brand classifications, the separated category prefer more ethnic brands than host brands, and the assimilated category prefer more host brands than ethnic brands. On the whole, despite splitting all the brands into different brand classifications, the results obtained are still the same. Moreover, these results are similar to that obtained by the tests for comparing groups and the CHAID analysis. The integrated category showed that their brand preference on the different brand classifications are in between those of the brand preferences of separated and the assimilated categories, though more close to the separated category on 'high involvement', 'and 'entertainment' brands; and more close to assimilated category on 'financial services' brands. No significant differences were found between those responsible for choosing the brand and those who were not.

Correlation analysis indicated that all but one demographic factor, namely 'job type' are significantly associated with acculturation categories. Cross-tabulations using chi-square test for independence were carried out to understand the nature of the relationship between the nine demographic factors, namely, age group, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generational difference, job type, nationality and the three acculturation categories. Several interesting findings were obtained. Moreover, a Two-Way ANOVA test showed that the demographic factors did not significantly moderate the relationship between the acculturation categories and the brand preferences.

Based on the results from the various analyses conducted in this chapter, the three acculturation categories have been profiled, in terms of their demographic characteristics and also in terms of their brand preferences. This chapter concludes with a summary of the hypotheses tested as shown in Table 5.25. The findings resulting from the main analyses are discussed further in Chapter Six.

Table 5.25 A summary of the hypothesis testing results

	Hypothesis testing results
H1-1	The three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry (1980) apply to the British Indian community.
H1-2	For the British Indian community, there are significant differences in the mean scores for brand preference across the three acculturation categories.
H1-3a	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Assimilation category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the other categories.
H1-3b	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Integration category are significantly more likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the Separation category; and are significantly more likely to prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the Assimilation category.
H1-3c	In the British Indian community, consumers in the Separation category are significantly more likely to prefer ethnic brands more often and host brands less often than consumers in the other categories.
H1-4a	The age of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4b	The gender of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4c	The total household income of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4d	The education level of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4e	The religious affiliation of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4f	The length of stay of British Indians in the UK is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4g	The generation to which British Indians belong is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-4h	The job type of British Indians is not significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H1-4i	The nationality of British Indians is significantly associated with their acculturation category.
H0-5	The demographics of British Indians (age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generation, job type, nationality) do not moderate the relationship between acculturation category and brand preference.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This research is concerned with three main issues. One is to examine whether Berry's (1980) concept of three categories of acculturation applies to British Indians. Another is to study the impact of acculturation on brand preference amongst British Indians. The third is to investigate the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation, and whether demographic factors moderate the relationship between acculturation and brand preference. The findings of the study indicate the importance of acculturation in the study of consumer behaviour, expressed here in relation to the brand preferences of British Indians. The research results suggest that the theoretical model of acculturation proposed by Berry (1980) and the Cultural Lifestyle Inventory (CLSI) measurement scale devised by Mendoza (1989) were successful in determining acculturation categories in the British Indian population.

In this study, the British Indian population was classified into the three categories described in Berry's (1980) model as 'separation', 'integration' and 'assimilation'. Brand preference was studied using a mix of ethnic and host brands. The demographic factors included in this research were age, gender, total household income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country, generational differences, job type or profession and nationality or residency. The findings revealed in the study are discussed in detail in this chapter.

The chapter is made up of seven sections. Section 6.1 gives an introduction to the chapter. Section 6.2 discusses the concept of acculturation categories and its application to the British Indian population. Section 6.3 discusses the research

findings of the overall impact of acculturation on brand preference. Section 6.4 looks at whether the impact of acculturation on brand preference varies according to the brand classifications based on the types of products or services, encompassing high/low involvement and high/low value classifications. Moreover, it investigates whether the brand decision makers, i.e. the respondents who actually make the decisions in their households on the purchase of such brands, have different preferences from those who are not the brand decision makers. Section 6.5 discusses the relationship of demographic factors with acculturation categories. Section 6.6 profiles the separated, integrated and assimilated British Indians; and finally, Section 6.7 summarises the key points discussed in the chapter. To assist in the discussion, a summary of the hypothesis testing which has been presented in Table 5.25 in Chapter Five may be referred to.

6.2 Categories of acculturation in the British Indian population

The concept of acculturation has been the focus of studies in cross-cultural psychology and consumer behaviour. Two different models for studying acculturation have evolved—the unidimensional and the bidimensional model. The merits of using the bidimensional model over the unidimensional model have been discussed and documented in Chapter Two. The bidimensional model has at its heart the supposition that ethnic minorities retain certain aspects of their native culture, while also embracing certain aspects of the host country's culture (Berry, 1980). Different frameworks for studying and documenting patterns of acculturation, using the bidimensional model, have emerged.

In his influential paper on acculturation, Berry (1980) defines four varieties of acculturative adaptation as 'separation', 'integration', 'assimilation' and

‘marginalisation’. As well as being the first taxonomy to categorise acculturation in this way, Berry’s framework also has certain other merits which are enumerated in Chapter Three of this thesis. Berry’s framework is based on a bidimensional model of acculturation, wherein individuals have the flexibility to alternate between the two cultures at different times. This makes the framework particularly suitable for studying the complex nature of acculturation. Also, the framework has been widely used by researchers such as Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002); Navas et al. (2007); Phinney et al. (1990); and by Berry himself with his colleagues (Berry et al., 1987, 1989), in acculturation research across various populations in different countries.

Berry’s acculturation categories are a function of two underlying cultural issues referred to as ‘cultural identification: ethnic or host’, which is the attitudinal dimension; and ‘participation in ethnic versus host cultural behaviour’, which is the behavioural dimension. When these two issues are considered concurrently, four acculturation categories result, namely, *separation*, in which individuals exhibit high ethnic cultural identification and low host cultural behaviour; *integration*, in which individuals exhibit high ethnic identity and high participation in both host and ethnic cultural behaviour; *assimilation*, in which individuals exhibit low ethnic identity and high participation in host cultural behaviour; and *marginalisation*, in which individuals exhibit low ethnic identity and cultural behaviour acceptable to neither culture.

Writing about the different acculturation categories, Penaloza (1994) argues that individuals in the marginalisation category resist the pull of both the host and the ethnic cultures. Although they lose important aspects of their ethnic culture, they do not replace them with those of the host culture (Berry and Kim, 1988). Considering

that these individuals are usually alienated (Lerman et al., 2009), Berry has suggested that this is the least stable category of acculturation. Paloma et al. (2010) have raised concerns about marginalisation being considered at all as an optional strategy of acculturation, since nobody chooses to be marginalised but is forced by circumstances.

Because of problems associated with studying this group, ranging from non-inclusion of these individuals in mailing lists or databases, to their cultural lifestyle tendency being the least common, the marginalisation category has been excluded in studies by researchers such as Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002); Mendoza (1989) and Phinney et al. (1990). In line with this stance, the present research has used only three categories of acculturation, namely, separation, integration and assimilation. This is specifically relevant for this research since it focuses on the consumer behaviour of individuals going through these stages of acculturation. The fact that neither culture is likely to influence the consumer behaviour of marginalised individuals would have made it difficult to interpret much from their brand preferences.

Considering that Berry's (1980) framework has been widely used in acculturation studies, it is interesting to question whether the framework applies to the British Indian population. The evidence gleaned from the British Indian context has shown that the three acculturation categories, namely, separation, integration and assimilation are present in this population. Thus, the existence of the acculturation categories as claimed by Berry et al. (1989) has been verified, extending the application of this framework to British Indians.

The fact that the British Indian population is not a homogenous group, and is made up of subgroups that are distinct and different from each other, has implications for both academicians and practitioners. Policymakers would benefit from awareness of this phenomenon within the community. Recognising the existence of these acculturation categories within the British Indian population means there is potential for formulating plans aimed at easing the process of cultural transition for immigrants. Also, the evidence that distinct acculturation categories exist within the British Indian population suggests that assimilation level, which is unidimensional, is not the only way to think about acculturation. This implies that a bidimensional view of the acculturation of the British Indian population may be more productive than a unidimensional one. That British Indians could fall into one of three acculturation categories has implications for practitioners. Specific marketing programmes may be crafted that cater to the requirements of not just the unacculturated and acculturated extremes, but also to those who belong to the 'integrated' category. For example, consumers in the integrated category may enjoy watching soaps on Indian television channels, but their familiarity with Indian languages is likely to be limited and thus there may be a need to subtitle content in English to aid understanding.

In contrast to previous studies, which mostly used an acculturation measurement scale, and one study that used cluster analysis to measure acculturation categories, this research used cluster analysis and an acculturation measurement scale, in combination. Such an approach was valuable in this case for two reasons. First, the cluster analysis produced three distinct clusters that were significantly different from each other. Second, the numbers of respondents in each of the three clusters obtained from the cluster analysis were similar to those obtained when the CLSI

scale was used. For each of the three clusters obtained, a mean value of the responses to the CLSI questions was calculated. For one cluster, this mean value was close to the response options that corresponded with the acculturation category of 'separation' on the CLSI scale. Likewise, the mean values of the other two clusters directly corresponded to the respective response options of the 'integration' and 'assimilation' categories. This useful triangulation indicates that the three clusters represented the separation, integration and assimilation categories, thereby enhancing the validity of the findings.

The use of cluster analysis provided an additional empirical test of acculturation categories which were also identified using the CLSI. It is interesting that both of these methods generated the same number of acculturation categories, containing similar numbers of individuals. This addresses concerns expressed by Rudmin (2003) who said that the '*a priori*' determination of acculturation categories is less accurate than empirically-derived solutions which do not predetermine the number of acculturation categories. Also, Mavreas et al. (1989) and Szapocznik and Kurtines (1980) explain that a scoring system with an ordinal response set is unable to differentiate individuals who associate with both ethnic and host cultures as against those who associate with neither. The scoring system in the CLSI manages this issue by treating the ordinal response set as nominal data in order to achieve a robust measure of bicultural individuals. Magana et al. (1996) recommend that future research is needed to explore whether the psychometric properties of the CLSI scale are retained under such conditions.

In this research, the cluster analysis used the ordinal response set while the CLSI used the nominal response set. In both cases the same outcome was achieved. This

suggests that the psychometric properties of CLSI have been retained in this application to the British Indian population. Therefore, the CLSI acculturation measurement scale proposed by Mendoza (1989), which is based on Berry's (1980) theoretical framework, has been successful in identifying the acculturation categories in the British Indian population. The results show that both the attitudinal and behavioural constructs of the CLSI existed when applied in the British Indian context. Furthermore, satisfactory reliability scores of 0.700 for the attitudinal questions and 0.797 for the behavioural questions were obtained, which are above the recommended level of 0.60.

6.3 Acculturation categories and brand preference

When general acculturation ideas are applied to the consumption context, they are referred to as consumer acculturation (Penaloza, 1994). Researchers have studied consumer acculturation in two ways, namely, from an 'acculturation perspective' and from a 'socialisation perspective'. Research taking the acculturation perspective takes into account the results of acculturation, which are studied either as levels of acculturation or as outcomes of acculturation (Ogden et al., 2004). The socialisation perspective focuses on the acculturating individual's consumption experience, with emphasis on the roles, socialisation process, identity formation; and shared and learned behaviour of the acculturating individuals (Costa, 1995).

This research has used the acculturation perspective for several reasons. Firstly, at the time of conducting this research, there were hardly any UK consumer acculturation studies based on the acculturation perspective and focusing on the different outcomes of acculturation. Secondly, using the acculturation perspective made it possible to look at the relationship between acculturation and multiple

factors such as age, gender, total household income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country, generational difference, job status, and nationality or residency. These factors were all considered within a defined period, and used to study impact on brand preference via acculturation.

Within the acculturation perspective, while studies of the levels of acculturation using a unidimensional approach can differentiate between the consumption behaviour of high and low acculturating individuals, they say little about individuals who fall between the two extremes (Mavreas et al., 1989; Szapocznik and Kurtines, 1980). By adopting the bidimensional model of acculturation, this research was able to successfully differentiate between high and low acculturating consumers and also explain the acculturation patterns between the two extremes (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mendoza, 1984).

That culture affects consumer behaviour has been well documented in the consumer behaviour literature. The Hawkins-Best-Coney model (2004) suggests that 'culture' and 'reference groups' are external influencers of consumer behaviour that bear upon an individual's self-concept and lifestyle. Acculturating consumers are known to embrace new roles due to changing circumstances, leading to changes in their consumption lifestyles, including their preferences for particular brands (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Mathur et al., 2003). Thus an individual's reference group (acculturation category) is claimed to influence their brand preferences.

The 'consumer ethnocentrism' literature, studied in conjunction with acculturation, has also been found useful in understanding consumer behaviour. The preference of the 'in-group' over the 'out-group' is referred to as 'ethnocentrism' (Sumner, 1906). While acculturation is the degree of immersion into the ethnic or host culture

(Mendoza, 1989), consumer ethnocentrism is the attachment to the 'in-group' preferences. The concepts of 'in-group' and 'out-group' are akin to the notion of 'reference groups' found in the 'consumer behaviour' literature. The expectation is that consumers who are open to out-groups will show a greater degree of acculturation and a lesser degree of consumer ethnocentrism. In this research, in-groups have been referred to as 'ethnic groups' with the in-group brands being termed ethnic brands; while out-groups have been referred to as 'host groups' with the out-group brands being those from the host society.

On the basis of the literature review, it was proposed that separated, integrated and assimilated British Indians would differ from each other in terms of their brand preferences. The results confirmed the expectation that the *three acculturation categories amongst British Indians were significantly different from each other on their brand preferences*. This differs from the results obtained by Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002), who found that while assimilated American Latinos were significantly different from the integrated and separated individuals, integrated and separated individuals were not significantly different from each other.

These results have important implications for researchers as well as practitioners. For researchers, the results confirm the role that acculturation plays in consumer behaviour, in the context of the British Indian population. The results suggest that 'acculturation' has potential as a segmentation variable because British Indians' consumption patterns differ according to the acculturation category to which they belong. The current research further shows that assimilation is not the only productive way of viewing acculturation and that there are substantial unacculturated populations, namely separated and integrated individuals with

distinctive consumer behaviours. The fact that there is merit in considering other modes of acculturation beyond assimilation also provides the basis for further research on British Indian consumer behaviour.

For marketing practitioners, the results offer the basis for an improved understanding of the preferences of ethnic minority consumers. Using ‘acculturation’ as a segmentation variable could help these practitioners to craft marketing mixes aimed at groups of similarly minded consumers. This approach might offer a more meaningful basis of doing so than the multiple ways in which ethnic minorities are currently grouped. For example, the age of a consumer is sometimes used as an estimate of acculturation level by practitioners i.e. younger consumers are considered more acculturated. However, this research has shown that age has to be studied in conjunction with length of stay in the country in order to fully appreciate the extent of consumer acculturation. For example, younger consumers, if new immigrants, are likely to be less acculturated than those who have been born in the UK or have lived in the UK for most of their lives. Moreover, since individuals from different cultures do not necessarily acculturate in the same way or at the same rate (Berry et al., 1987; Quester et al., 2001; Seitz, 1998), segmentation of ethnic minorities based on ‘acculturation’ may be more resistant to flaws arising from such differences.

To assist in further discussion, brands used in this research are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Brand options used in the research

Ethnic Brands	Host Brands
Jet Airways	British Airways
Bollywood	Hollywood
ICICI Bank	Barclays Bank
KTC Cooking Oil	Flora Cooking Oil
Zee TV	ITV
Star Tours	Thompson Travels
Parle-G Biscuits	McVities Biscuits
Mysore Sandal Soap	Dove Soap
Rubicon Juice	Ribena Juice
Shana Frozen Food	Bird's Eye Frozen Food
Pride Olive Oil	Filipo Berio Olive Oil
Tilda Rice	Uncle Ben's Rice

Individuals in the separation category have been described as those who identify themselves more with the ethnic community and most often tend to separate themselves from the host society (Berry, 1997). Since ethnocentrism is a way of ensuring the survival of ethnic cultures through greater conformity and loyalty (Sharma et al., 1995), these individuals are likely to display high levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Therefore, they are likely to have ethnic groups as their reference groups and may long for things from ‘back home’ (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

Various studies on consumer acculturation have observed the above-mentioned theoretical pattern amongst less acculturated individuals. Kara and Kara (1996) found that less acculturated people place a higher value on well-known ‘home country’ brands that are now available in their host country. An example of such a brand for British Indians would be Zee TV, India’s leading television channel with domestic and international broadcast. A study of the level of involvement associated with purchasing Indian ethnic apparel (Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005) found

that Asian Indians with low acculturation levels tend to be highly involved when making such purchases. Similarly, Asian Indian immigrants in the US who were the least acculturated had predominantly Indian food habits (Gupta, 1975). Also, Sodowsky and Carey's (1988) study of Asian Indians in the US has shown that less acculturated consumers are close to the Indian culture, think mostly in the Indian language, eat Indian food and wear Indian clothing at home. Likewise, Penaloza (1994) has observed that segregated Mexican Americans eat Spanish food and use Spanish media. Based on Berry's (1980) acculturation categories, Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) have found that consumers in the separation category choose ethnic brands more often than host brands.

Based on the above discussion, it was expected that separated consumers would prefer more ethnic brands than host brands. This expectation was confirmed with the findings which showed that *British Indians in the separation category* prefer ethnic brands 59.6% of the time (compared with 37.5% and 10.0% for those in the integration and assimilation categories respectively). For example, on entertainment brands, separated consumers preferred 'ethnic brands' such as Zee TV and Bollywood more than the 'host brands'—ITV and Hollywood. This suggests that separated consumers who are less acculturated may prefer to watch Zee TV, which is a well-known 'home country' brand, more often than host TV channel such as ITV. The above observations show that separated consumers are closer to their ethnic culture and suggest that they regard those from the ethnic culture as their 'in-groups'.

Unlike studies based on levels of acculturation, research based on acculturation outcomes is able to differentiate high and low acculturating individuals and also

capture the consumer acculturation patterns for those falling between these two extremes. Chattaraman et al. (2010) argue that these 'integrated' individuals move between ethnic and host cultures, as reflected by shifting preferences. Studies by Lindridge et al. (2004) and Sekhon and Szmigin (2009) have concluded that bicultural second generation immigrants, who are akin to Berry's (1980) integrated category, feel the need to negotiate between two cultures and express this through their consumption.

Gupta's (1975) study of American Asian Indians mentioned that those who fell into such a transitional stage were moderately acculturated, with a blend of Indian and American food habits. Likewise, in their study of the US Asian Indian population, Sodowsky and Carey's (1988) noted that those who regarded themselves as Asian Americans were more bicultural, with clothing style and food habits being a mix of both Indian and American cultures. A study by Penaloza (1994) revealed that Mexican American immigrants in the 'maintenance' category, which is akin to Berry's 'integration' category, adopted certain offerings, such as ethnic food and media, which allowed them to maintain Mexican ties; while simultaneously using certain other offerings, such as telephones, automobiles and financial services from the host culture. Another study of Mexican Americans showed that integrated individuals chose host and ethnic brands in similar proportions (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

Since integrated individuals exhibit high participation in both host and ethnic cultural behaviour (Berry, 1997), they are likely to have reference groups from both the ethnic and host societies. Given that these individuals develop preferences for brands from both cultures depending on the context (Maldonado and Tansuhaj,

2002), it was expected in this research that integrated consumers would prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than separated consumers; and prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than assimilated consumers. The findings have shown that *British Indians in the integration category* preferred host brands 62.5% of the time (40.4% for separated and 90% for assimilated individuals) and preferred ethnic brands 37.5% of the time (59.6% for separated and 10% for assimilated individuals). Thus the results are consistent with the findings from past studies.

For example, on travel brands, the integrated consumers preferred ethnic and host brands in almost equal proportions, with preferences for Jet Airways and Star Tours being similar to those for British Airways and Thomson Travel. The proportion of integrated consumers who preferred ethnic or host brands was also in between that of the separated and assimilated consumers. This suggests that they feel equally comfortable with brands from both cultures.

Lee (1993) found that as Taiwanese Americans became more acculturated, they bought more well-known American brands. A study by Shim and Chen (1996) suggested that more acculturated Chinese Americans had shopping interests, media preferences and cultural lifestyles similar to those of Americans, while Gupta's (1975) research showed highly acculturated American Asian Indians to have American food habits. Sodowsky and Carey (1988) reported that Asian Indians who saw themselves as being mostly or very American, wore American styles of dress at home and ate American food even when they were away from home. Furthermore, Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) found that assimilated Mexican Americans chose host brands more often.

Individuals from the host society are likely to be the reference group for consumers in the assimilation category. Such individuals have a low ethnic identity and participate highly in host cultural behaviour (Berry, 1997). Sharma et al. (1995) found that consumers who were open to alternate cultures were less ethnocentric; so these assimilated individuals would be expected to display lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism. For consumers in the assimilation category, greater host brand preference would be one way of seeking liberation from the now less desired ethnic culture (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

Consequently, it was expected in this research that consumers in the assimilation category would be likely to prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the other categories. These expectations were confirmed by the findings which have shown that *British Indians in the assimilation category* prefer host brands 90% of the time, compared with integrated (62.5%) and separated (40.4%) individuals. These findings are consistent with the results of the majority of past research. In this research, with respect to food products which include host brands, such as McVities biscuits and Ribena juice, assimilated consumers preferred 'host brands' more than their 'ethnic brand' equivalents such as Parle-G biscuits and Rubicon juice. This suggests that the assimilated consumers may display lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism, which could be due to their higher participation in the host culture.

Overall, it is clear that British Indians in the three acculturation categories have significantly different brand preferences. This raises interesting questions for practitioners as they seek to understand what brand owners should do to reach out to particular categories of consumers. Different media strategies may be required to

communicate to these different groups. Manufacturers could also benefit from finding ways of making themselves relevant to more than one category of British Indians. For example, one of the brands used in this research was Shana, which is preferred by separated consumers for the range of frozen foods that it offers. In order to reach out to assimilated consumers, Shana might benefit from understanding this group's particular requirements and motivations. This might, for example, lead to the introduction of a chilled, fresh product range which may have shorter shelf life but be preferred by the assimilated consumers who may favour such products over frozen ones.

Such a product extension would have to be supported by a communication plan that reached out to assimilated consumers using relevant media vehicles. The assimilated consumers would also have to be accessed physically, as they may not be living in the same geographical areas as separated individuals. Brand owners could therefore explore options such as online sales, in order to reach such people. The use of acculturation categories to examine product/brand extension possibilities would also be an area of academic interest. This is because the research findings imply that there is potential for targeting of product and service offers within acculturation categories as well as between them. Marketing theory has used two-by-two matrices such as the Ansoff's Growth Share Matrix to understand sources of growth for a brand or firm and the role of new products in achieving this (Keller, 2008). Firms could use existing brands to introduce new products, with these brand extensions being into existing or new markets. The possibility of using acculturation categories as segments emerges from the research creating the opportunity to study the extension of brands into new markets made up of different acculturation categories. One such aspect is to understand the role of host and ethnic culture in brand

extension. For example, Monga and John (2004) found that Western cultures judged brand extensions analytically looking at factors such as individual brand attributes, whereas Eastern cultures judged brand extensions holistically, involving parameters such as brand reputation. Thus this research shows that there is potential to advance the study of brand extensions by addressing the merits of such extensions into market segments that are made up of consumers from across different acculturation categories.

It is interesting to question whether the three acculturation categories identified in this research are static or whether there is a transition of individuals across them. In two studies conducted twenty years apart, Hutnik and Barrett (2003) found that Asian adolescents in Birmingham fell into the same categories of acculturation. This suggests stability in acculturation categories, at least in these studies, which may not have been anticipated. It also has implications for the extent and ways in which individuals become acculturated. The implication for the current research is that it is difficult to make assumptions about consumers' transition across acculturation categories over time, or the effects which this has on their consumer behaviour. Of course, this does not mean that there is no transition. Indeed, the fact that adolescents were studied twenty years apart by Hutnik and Barrett (2003) and the same acculturation categories were identified might have been significant. Even so, future research should study whether or not this transition across acculturation categories occurs over time and the consequences for any such transition for consumption behaviour. This will be considered further in Section 7.5.

6.4. Acculturation and brand preference – by various products and services

Consumer behaviour, as expressed by brand preference, can have both internal and external influences, as seen in the Hawkins-Best-Coney (2004) model (see Figure 2.4). While using the acculturation perspective to study consumer behaviour, the focus of this research has been on the external influences of consumer behaviour. Culture or a change in culture, i.e. acculturation and demographics, are two of the external influences to be considered. In the current research, while studying the influence of acculturation categories and demographics on overall brand preference, the acculturation categories were found to be the primary differentiators for overall brand preferences. The research findings also reveal how brand preferences vary when studied across different types of products and services.

In this research, brand preference has been studied across food products, financial services, travel, entertainment and cosmetic brands. As discussed in Chapter Four, a consumer's attitude towards a brand can be either perceptive or evaluative (Lee and Um, 1992). The construct of involvement is related to perception, while value is related to evaluation. 'Involvement' is the level of perceived importance or emotional attachment evoked by the product (Antil, 1984; Martin, 1998). 'Value' is an evaluative attitude which is rational in nature (Anderson, 1996; Lee and Um, 1992). As has been explained, based on the consumer's attitude towards different products, brands used in this research were classified either as 'high-low involvement' or as 'high-low value' according to whether consumer preferences for them are driven primarily by emotions or by rational factors.

Overall, across all of the various classifications of products or services, assimilated consumers were found to prefer host brands more often, followed by integrated

consumers, who preferred host brands more often than did separated consumers. This relationship between acculturation category and brand preference is consistent both at an overall level, and also across a range of product and service types encompassing high and low involvement and high and low value classifications. This indicates that the effect of acculturation on brand preference is very robust and that acculturation is the main differentiator for brand preference, whatever the nature of the product or service type. This implies that understanding different acculturation categories and how British Indian consumers within them respond to various product and service offerings may be a highly productive first step in understanding these consumers' needs. For example, if a brand of mobile phones was being launched into the mainstream UK market, one of the first steps the brand owner might undertake would be to understand the 'habits and attitudes' of consumers in the mobile phone market. This would mean understanding aspects such as average spend per month, average talk time, usage of text facilities, etc. However, if the same brand owner was looking at the British Indian market, before undertaking a detailed 'habit and attitudes' study, it would make sense to understand broad differences in mobile phone usage across the three acculturation categories. This is because the acculturation category may well be the primary differentiator for how consumers behave in this sector and may provide useful insights into potential marketing programmes. For example, companies that offer competitive international rates might be of greater interest to separated consumers, who are more likely to be in touch with families back home.

A detailed look at brand preferences by the different product and service types revealed that in the financial services category, all three acculturation categories showed a higher preference for the host brand. However, even here, the assimilated

consumers preferred the host brand more often, followed by integrated consumers, who preferred the host brand more often than separated consumers. This overall higher preference for the host financial services brand could be due to factors such as the trust or levels of customer service offered by that brand. Also consumers, in general are much less likely to switch financial service providers than other service operators. This can be due to high transaction costs of closing an account with one bank and opening one with another (Klemperer, 1987).

It was observed that for financial services, the integrated consumers were closer to the assimilated category and preferred host brands more often and for the entertainment brands, the integrated consumers were close to the separated consumers in their preference for ethnic brands. Consumers had classified financial services as 'high value' and entertainment as 'high involvement' categories. This indicates a tendency for the integrated consumers to prefer host brands when their approach is rational and prefer ethnic brands when their approach is emotional. That the preferences of integrated consumers oscillate between host and ethnic brands has been recognised in the literature. Chattaraman et al. (2010) found that bicultural consumers displayed significant shifts in their attitudes and purchase intentions for Hispanic and mainstream apparel brands in a manner that is congruent with the Hispanic and mainstream cultural icons shown during their research. A study of Asian Indians in the UK, involving acculturation, identity and consumption, revealed the need for these individuals to negotiate between the two cultures in ways that were visible through their consumption (Sekhon and Szmigin, 2009). Based on their study of South Asian women in Britain, Lindridge et al. (2004) explained that such differences in consumption are dependent on the situation in which the consumption occurred. The research findings presented here add a layer of richness

to this earlier work, showing that the emotional or rational approach that integrated consumers have towards the product or service is instrumental in determining whether ethnic or host brand preferences are displayed.

The findings also suggested that there was no significant association between acculturation categories and 'low involvement' brands. This indicated that when there is a lack of personal involvement, probably because of habitual preferences, membership of a particular acculturation category did not have a bearing on the individual's brand preferences. Likewise, acculturation category was not significantly associated with preferences for cosmetic brands. This means that the cosmetic brands included in the research did not have much personal significance for British Indian consumers, indicating that these brands are culturally less sensitive than some of the others used. The implication for practitioners is that it is necessary to identify product types which are culturally sensitive and those which are not, so that they can focus their resources pragmatically.

Thus the research findings suggest that the potential for marketing cosmetics brands that have been exclusively customised for British Indians may be limited. This adds to what is already known academically about the effects of acculturation on consumer preference for specific product types. The relationship between acculturation and consumer behaviour is quite a subtle one. By studying these different types of product types, this research has revealed more in this respect than other studies which have tended to focus on a single product type such as clothing (Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005) and automobiles (Podoshen, 2006).

A study by Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995) theorised that when brand preference is coupled with purchase intent, it results in brand choice. In this research, consumers

were evaluated in terms of whether or not they were the decision makers for the products included. For the particular product or service types studied, the results indicated that these decision makers did not differ in preferences from those who were not. This showed that consumers were prepared to express their brand preferences irrespective of whether or not they were decision makers for particular products. A possible explanation for this is that some of these consumers' preferences are shaped by the brands chosen by the purchasers in their household.

6.5 Relationship between demographic factors and acculturation

Previous studies (e.g. Berry, 1980, 1997; Padilla, 1980; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005; Szapocznik et al., 1978) have demonstrated the relationship between demographic factors and the acculturation of immigrants. Factors discussed in prior studies include age, gender, income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country, generational difference, job type, and nationality or residency. The Hawkins-Best-Coney (2004) model has shown that culture and demographics are both external influencers of consumer behaviour. Thus consumer characteristics such as demographics are related to brand preferences (Van Trijp et al., 1996), which in turn are expressions of consumer behaviour (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). While there have been several studies of the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation, which have included the consequences for consumer behaviour, few studies of this nature have been conducted involving the British Indian population.

This research has suggested that the acculturation category of an individual is the predictor variable most strongly related to their overall brand preferences. Furthermore, demographic factors have also been found to differ between

acculturation categories and to be secondary differentiators of brand preference. This suggests that it is productive to study the relationship between demographic factors and brand preference via acculturation.

Age and its impact on acculturation and consumer behaviour has been the subject of much attention in consumer acculturation research. Szapocznik et al. (1978) and Quester and Chong (2001), amongst others, have argued that younger immigrants tend to acculturate more rapidly than older ones. However, in contrast to these studies, the findings from this research have shown that individuals in the separated category tend to be younger (34 years or below age group) while those in the assimilated category are more middle aged (35-54 years age group) compared with individuals in the other two acculturation categories. A larger percentage of integrated individuals were in the 55 years and above age group than found in the other two acculturation categories. This differs from Penaloza's (1994) study of Mexican American immigrants, in which she described older individuals as being more traditional and closer to their ethnic culture.

Given the contradictory nature of these findings, further investigation of age and length of stay in the UK is merited, particularly given the bearing that length of stay has on acculturation level. The presence of younger aged separated individuals in the sample is probably because many were recent immigrants and had lived in the UK for only a very short time. A larger percentage of assimilated individuals fell in the middle age group because they had either been born in the UK or had lived in the UK for much longer. This is consistent with Berry (1997), who suggested that when acculturation starts early in life, the process is much smoother. Interestingly, none of the integrated older individuals had been born in the UK, but large numbers

had lived here for '21 years or more'. Spending a lengthy period of time in the UK may explain why large numbers of this group had become integrated, and why they had relinquished some of their attachment to their ethnic culture. It is also possible that many of the British Indian immigrants from East Africa may have already undergone a process of acculturation in their previous country of residence prior to arriving in the UK. This perhaps made them more culturally adaptive.

The importance of gender in relation to acculturation has been studied by many researchers. Some, such as Khairullah and Khairullah (1999), Marin et al. (1987) and Padilla (1980), found no significant differences in acculturation levels between men and women. On the other hand, Baldassini and Flaherty (1982) and Szapocznik et al. (1978) found that males acculturated more rapidly than females. This research also found a significant association between gender and acculturation, with a higher percentage of assimilated individuals being females than males. Further examination showed that amongst the British Indians surveyed, the female respondents tended either to have been born in the UK or had a greater length of stay in the UK than their male counterparts. There are at least two plausible explanations. The first is that there were a higher percentage of more recent male than female immigrants. This may be due to the pattern of economic migration seen of late. The second is that more recent female immigrants may not have completed the questionnaire, possibly because of time constraints as a result of being busy settling the family down in a new country. Thus while there may be differences in the extent of acculturation between genders, the underlying reasons are worthy of further exploration.

Studies by Padilla (1980) and Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) on Mexican Americans indicated a positive relationship between acculturation and total household income. In contrast to this, Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) found no significant association between the incomes of US-based Asian Indian consumers and their levels of acculturation. Similarly, Khairullah and Khairullah's (1999) study of US Asian Indians found that income had no influence on levels of acculturation. On the other hand, studies by Goldlust and Richmond (1974) and Quester and Chong (2001), amongst others, indicated that more acculturated individuals had higher levels of income. Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) found that US Latinos in the separation category had lower household incomes than those in the integration and assimilation categories. In line with most of these earlier findings, the results of this research found that a large percentage of assimilated British Indians fall into the higher total annual household income band of above £80,000 per annum. There could be two potential explanations. Since a large percentage of assimilated individuals are either born in the UK or have lived here for a long time, they are likely to be leading economically more successful lives than those in the other two categories who are relatively newer immigrants. Also, the integrated and assimilated individuals being more established in this country are likely to be dual income families and thus have greater household incomes than separated consumers.

Researchers have also studied the relationship between acculturation and the educational level of the immigrant. Padilla's (1980) study of Mexican Americans indicated that more acculturated individuals were found amongst those with higher educational levels, a finding which is supported by Hoyer and Deshpande (1982) and Olmedo and Padilla (1978). However, Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) found no significant relationship between education and acculturation in their study of US-

based Asian Indian consumers. They attributed this to the fact that many such individuals did not attend school in the US and only a small percentage of the individuals held professional jobs.

The findings of this research contradict what has been observed in the past. A larger percentage of separated British Indians had higher levels of education when compared with the integrated and assimilated individuals. Further investigation indicated that many of these highly educated separated British Indians had lived for only a short length of time in the UK, were first generation, and held Indian nationality. It is therefore likely that those in the separated category who were highly educated had not received their schooling in the UK. However, a large majority of the assimilated British Indians who were graduates or diploma holders had been born in the UK and also held British nationality. This suggests that the fact that these individuals had been schooled in the UK may have impacted upon their level of acculturation. Overall, this shows that education level on its own does not distinguish between the extent of acculturation, but where that education took place does have an impact.

Religion has been studied by researchers in two ways: (1) religious affiliation, which is the adherence of individuals to a particular religious group (Hirschman, 1983) and (2) religiosity, which is the degree of commitment to that religion (Delener, 1990). This research has focused on religious affiliation which has been under-represented in previous studies of acculturation. Khairullah and Khairullah (1999) found a significant association between religious affiliation and acculturation, while Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer (2005) indicated that Hindus were less acculturated than Christians. This research also found the relationship between religious affiliation

and consumer acculturation to be significant, with a higher percentage of assimilated British Indians belonging to the Christian faith and a higher percentage of separated British Indians being Hindus. Padilla (1980) suggests that the existence of prior knowledge about the host culture is positively correlated with acculturation. Thus familiarity with customs and cultural norms in the host society is likely to enable Christians to become more readily assimilated. Even so, in this particular study the numbers of Christian British Indians were relatively few in comparison with those who were Hindus, so these conclusions need to be considered with caution.

Some researchers, such as Penaloza (1994) and Shim and Chen (1996) found no significant relationship between the length of stay in the host country and acculturation. However, most previous studies (e.g. Lee and Tse, 1994; Szapocznik et al., 1978) suggest that length of stay in the host country is positively correlated with acculturation level. Different explanations have been given for this relationship, such as the extent of exposure to the host culture (Kara and Kara, 1996; Quester and Chong, 2001); a decrease in the approval of traditional values (Nguyen and Williams, 1989; Rosenthal et al, 1996); and weakening of family ties (Berry, 2001). In line with these researchers, the findings from this research suggest that there is a significant association between length of stay in the UK and the acculturation of British Indians. A large percentage of assimilated individuals were either born in the UK or had lived for a long time in the country. A greater length of stay in the UK may give more opportunities for interaction with the host culture whether it is through family, friends, media or other institutions. For example, with children going to school, there is likely to be greater exposure to activities related to the school. Also, interaction with commercial institutions such as banks, supermarkets and public transport provides other avenues of contact with the host culture. Such

exposure to the host culture due to greater length of stay in the country is likely to be a key factor in the acculturation of British Indians.

Several previous studies (e.g. Kurian, 1986; Kwak and Berry, 2001; Nguyen and Williams, 1989; Padilla, 1980), have indicated that with subsequent generations, individuals become more acculturated. Matsuoka (1990) has suggested that conflict between parents and adolescents is higher among immigrant families than in families from the host society, and that this difference is the primary cause of these generational differences. Thus parents and children have reached dissimilar phases of adaptation, with the parents being more inclined than their children to protect their ethnic culture (Kwak and Berry, 2001).

The findings from this research indicate that a large percentage of separated individuals are first generation and a large percentage of assimilated individuals are from the second generation. These observations about British Indians are consistent with prior research. This makes sense when seen in the light of the association between the length of stay in the UK and acculturation of British Indians. As seen earlier, a large percentage of assimilated British Indians have either been born in the UK or have lived here for a long time compared to the separated individuals. This makes many of them second generation immigrants to the UK, while separated individuals having arrived recently in the UK makes them first generation.

Researchers in the past have found links between job status and degree of acculturation. Khairullah and Khairullah (1999) found that individuals holding professional jobs became more acculturated, while Padilla (1980) and Penaloza (1994) suggested that contact between members of the host and ethnic cultures facilitated the acculturation process. In this research, the acculturation category of

the British Indians had no significant relationship with their job type. This is unlike what has been observed in previous studies and was a surprise. Given that contact with host culture plays an important role in acculturation, job type was expected to have significant relationship with acculturation. In this research, the classification of job type was broadly based on the census and modified based on insights gained in the qualitative phase of the research. However, this job type classification probably did not adequately differentiate respondents on the basis of their exposure to the host culture.

Nationality or the resident status of immigrants has previously been studied by researchers such as Quester and Chong (2001), whose study of Australian Chinese consumers found individuals with Australian citizenship to be more acculturated. Similarly, Jun et al. (1993) and Mendoza (1989) observed that immigrants who saw themselves as becoming permanent residents of the host country, showed a greater propensity for acculturation. In keeping with these studies, a large percentage of the separated British Indians involved in this study were found to hold Indian nationality, while the majority (95%) of the assimilated British Indians were British nationals. While nationality on its own may broadly indicate whether the British Indians are separated or assimilated, it runs the risk of misclassifying those individuals who belong in the integrated category. This is because the integrated individuals are a combination of British and Indian nationals.

Although most of the demographic factors included in the research have a relationship with acculturation in line with what was observed in prior studies, some factors such as age, gender and education did not follow the previously observed patterns, amongst British Indians. Also, job type did not show a significant

association with acculturation categories. This shows that it may not be appropriate to use just demographic factors as proxies to estimate the extent of acculturation of British Indians. For example, previous studies indicate that more educated individuals would have been classified as assimilated. However, as has been seen in this research, this is not necessarily true, and the relationship between education level and acculturation categories is not so straightforward. A more appropriate approach would be to use an instrument like the CLSI to classify individuals into different acculturation categories. This highlights the complexity of studying acculturation and emphasises the need to understand the intricacies of acculturation patterns of different ethnic minority groups.

Section 6.5 has looked at the relationship between demographic factors and the acculturation of immigrants. Although the research looked for evidence that demographic variables moderate the relationship between acculturation and brand preference, none was found. This indicates only one main effect, namely the effect of acculturation category on brand preference and that demographic variables do not moderate this relationship.

The implication is that it is valuable to study the consumer behaviour of British Indians purely based on their acculturation categories. Once acculturation categories have been determined, it will be relatively straightforward to study not only brand preferences but also other consumer behaviour variables, such as media preferences, brand loyalty, shopping orientations, consumer satisfaction, consumer decision making processes and customer service expectations. For example, it would be meaningful to study whether the shopping orientations of different acculturation categories vary from one another. While separated British Indians may prefer

shopping in specialist Indian stores, those in the other two categories may use mainstream supermarkets and convenience stores to varying extents. Therefore, this research has shown that consideration of the complex subject of consumer acculturation even in quite simple ways can have significant implications for academicians and practitioners.

6.6 Profiles of acculturation categories

Acculturation has been a central theme of this research, with a focus on examining whether Berry's (1980) categories of acculturation apply to the British Indian community. The research has also looked at the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour, as expressed through brand preference, and at the relationships between demographics and acculturation. Part of the research has involved identifying the types of individuals who make up the three different acculturation categories within the British Indian community. The following section uses the research findings to develop pen portraits or profiles of British Indians in each of the three acculturation categories.

6.6.1 Separated British Indians

Newer immigrants make up over two-thirds of this category. With shorter lengths of stay in the UK than those in the other categories, separated British Indians are overwhelmingly first generation, with over half holding Indian nationality. The educational attainment of this group is impressive, with over half having postgraduate qualifications. However, these qualifications are likely to have been obtained overseas and it is therefore their shorter length of stay in the country that is associated with their belonging to the separated category. This shorter length of stay

and their transitional status in terms of nationality may partly explain why almost half of this group have an annual household income of less than £40,000 per annum.

Close to half of the separated category are below 34 years of age and nearly two-thirds are male. When taken in conjunction with length of stay, this suggests that a large percentage of this separated group is made up of economic migrants. Overall, separated British Indians were more likely to prefer ethnic brands over host brands than those in the integrated or assimilated categories, reinforcing their closer physical and emotional ties with India.

6.6.2 Integrated British Indians

This category falls between the separated and the assimilated categories in some aspects of its demographic make-up. Members of this group have lived longer in the UK compared with the separated British Indians, with around half having spent over 21 years in the country. Despite this, unlike the assimilated British Indians, only one fifth of this category is second generation. A greater percentage fall into the 55 years and above age group compared with those in the other two acculturation categories. The majority of the integrated individuals hold British nationality. The male–female ratio in this category was a fit with the total population surveyed and nearly half of the group had total annual household incomes in the £40,000–£80,000 band. While for most types of products and services the integrated individuals showed brand preference patterns between those of the separated and assimilated individuals, they oscillated closer to the separated individuals on ‘high involvement’ brands and ‘entertainment’ brands, and were closer to the assimilated individuals in relation to the ‘financial services’ brands. This indicates that when the integrated consumers are rational in their approach to a product or service type, they prefer host brands more

often, and when they are emotional in their approach, they prefer ethnic brands more often.

6.6.3 Assimilated British Indians

The key defining characteristic of assimilated British Indians is their length of stay in the UK. The overwhelming majority were born in the UK or had migrated to the country at an early age. More than two-thirds are between 35 and 54 years of age, with half being second generation immigrants. Having been born or lived in the UK for over 21 years, not surprisingly almost all of these individuals hold British nationality. Being well settled in the UK, they are leading economically successful lives, with almost four-fifths living in households with an annual income in excess of £40,000.

Women make up two-thirds of this category. In terms of their overall brand preferences, the assimilated British Indians are more likely to prefer host brands over ethnic brands than those in the separated or integrated categories.

This section has painted a pen portrait of British Indians across the three acculturation categories. The profiles have given a snapshot of each category in terms of their demographic make-up as well as brand preferences. This information has implications for both academicians and practitioners which will be discussed further in the next chapter.

6.7 Summary

The research has revealed three categories of acculturation in the British Indian community, which have been profiled as ‘separated’, ‘integrated’ and ‘assimilated’.

This is consistent with Berry's (1980) taxonomy. British Indian individuals falling into these three categories were found to be significantly different from each other in terms of their brand preferences. These observations highlight the role played by acculturation in consumer behaviour amongst British Indians. Moreover, the results have demonstrated that Berry's (1980) acculturation taxonomy and Mendoza's (1989) acculturation measurement scale (CLSI) can be used successfully in the British Indian context.

Previous studies (e.g. Kara and Kara, 1996; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Padilla, 1980; Shim and Chen, 1996) have shown that the consumption behaviour of ethnic consumers varies according to the extent to which they are acculturated. When general acculturation is related to this consumption process, it is referred to as consumer acculturation (Penaloza, 1994). While acculturation can be thought of as the extent of immersion into the ethnic or host culture (Mendoza, 1989), consumer ethnocentrism is the attachment to the 'in-group' or ethnic group preferences (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). These 'in-groups' are akin to 'reference groups', which are external influences of consumer behaviour (Hawkins-Best-Coney model, 2004).

Consumers who are more separated are likely to be more open to in-groups and are expected to prefer more ethnic brands over host brands, as against assimilated consumers who show an out-group preference probably leading to a greater host brand preference. As in prior studies (e.g.; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Penaloza, 1994; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005; Sodowsky and Carey, 1988), this research has supported the notion that separated consumers prefer ethnic brands over host brands. Chattaraman et al. (2010), Lindridge et al. (2004) and Sekhon and Szmigin (2009) have all argued that integrated individuals feel the need to negotiate

between two cultures, which they express through preferences for brands from both cultures in different contexts (Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002).

The research has demonstrated that consumers in the integration category prefer host brands more often and ethnic brands less often than consumers in the separation category; and prefer host brands less often and ethnic brands more often than consumers in the assimilation category. In addition, the research has highlighted that when integrated consumers are emotional in their approach to the product or service type, they oscillate towards the ethnic brand preference of the separated consumers, e.g. on 'entertainment brands' and when they are rational in their approach, they are close to the host brand preference of the assimilated consumers, e.g. on 'financial service brands'. Consistent with the results of previous research (e.g. Gupta, 1975; Lee, 1993; Maldonado and Tansuhaj, 2002; Shim and Chen 1996; Sodowsky and Carey, 1988), assimilated consumers prefer more host brands than ethnic brands. The results have also suggested that the acculturation category to which a consumer belongs has no bearing on low involvement brands such as cosmetics, which indicates that the consumption of low involvement brands may be less culturally sensitive amongst British Indians.

Studies examining demographic factors in the context of acculturation consistently agree that variables such as age, gender, income, education, religion, length of stay in the host country, generational status, job type and nationality are related to acculturation (Berry, 1980, 1997; Padilla, 1980; Rajagopalan and Heitmeyer, 2005; Szapocznik et al., 1978). In this research, all of these demographic factors except job type are shown to be associated with acculturation. In general, the relationships found follow those seen in other acculturation studies. However, there are also some

interesting anomalies with other acculturation studies. For example, while Quester and Chong (2001) and Szapocznik et al. (1978) found that younger immigrants acculturate more rapidly than older ones; this research has shown that this is not necessarily true for British Indians. A large percentage of individuals in the 25-34 years age group were 'separated' due to the fact that they were newer immigrants. Interestingly, a large percentage of integrated individuals were British Indians who were 55 years or older. This may be because they were probably able to relinquish some of their attachment to their ethnic culture, having lived longer in the UK. Those in the middle aged group were either born in the UK or have lived here for a long time, making them more assimilated.

Based on what has been found about the effect of acculturation on brand preference and on the types of individuals within the acculturation categories, the chapter has concluded with pen portraits of separated, integrated and assimilated individuals. Overall, the primary focus of this chapter has been to interrogate and discuss the research findings and relationships found within them.

The next chapter provides conclusions to the research, summarising results, research and practical contributions, and considering possible avenues for future research. Finally, the limitations of the study are examined.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

Wars, disparities in incomes and in living standards have historically been the triggers for migration. Commercial and technological advancements are also leading to greater intercultural contact, making acculturation an important phenomenon. Studies of acculturation originated in anthropology, but the effects of acculturation on consumer behaviour have also been studied in the field of cross-cultural psychology. Given the trends towards increasing immigration, it is timely to consider whether the findings from these consumer acculturation studies are applicable to British Indians, the largest ethnic minority group in the UK.

Acculturation has been studied from two perspectives; the 'acculturation' perspective and the 'socialisation' perspective. The 'acculturation' perspective focuses on the outcomes of the acculturation process, while the 'socialisation' perspective concentrates on the process itself. There have been a number of studies using both of these perspectives from across the world, particularly in North America. While there are a few studies on consumer acculturation of British Indians from the 'socialisation' perspective, there are hardly any taking the 'acculturation' perspective. The research reported here has aimed to address this gap, laying the foundations for studying UK consumer acculturation on the basis of different acculturation outcomes. By applying Berry's (1980) taxonomy, the study has identified three acculturation outcomes, namely, separation, integration and assimilation, thus extending the scope of this study beyond the 'integrated' category of consumers which has been the focus of other studies in the UK. This research contributes generally to studies on the acculturation of British Indians based on

acculturation outcomes, and specifically to the understanding of how these affect consumer behaviour.

Several researchers have already elaborated on the relationship between demographic factors and acculturation. The acculturation perspective used to study consumer acculturation here has made it possible to capture the relationship between multiple demographic factors and acculturation, within a defined period of time and across generations of the immigrant population. The results have contributed to identifying the differences between the three acculturation categories in terms of their demographic make-up.

The aims of this chapter are to summarise the findings of the research, discuss its contributions, analyse the limitations and indicate future research directions. The chapter is organised into six sections: Section 7.2 provides a summary of the major research findings; Section 7.3 explains the research contributions for academic researchers and practitioners. Section 7.4 discusses the limitations of the research, while Section 7.5 identifies future research directions both in the field of acculturation in general and consumer acculturation in particular. Section 7.6 summarises the key points of the chapter.

7.2 Summary of research findings

One of the main objectives of this research was to examine whether the three categories of acculturation (Berry, 1980) applied to British Indians. The findings reveal the existence of three acculturation categories from Berry's (1980) taxonomy: namely, separation, integration and assimilation, in the British Indian population. The acculturation categories were measured using the Cultural Life Style Inventory

(CLSI) designed by Mendoza (1989). These three categories were generated using the highest categorical percentage scoring method and by applying cluster analysis to the data. The research results highlighted that British Indians can be readily classified using a bidimensional model of acculturation, suggesting that assimilation is not the only way of conceptualising acculturation.

Another key finding from the research concerns the effect of acculturation on consumer behaviour, which in this instance was studied by way of expressed brand preferences. It was proposed that the three acculturation categories in the British Indian community would differ from each other in their brand preferences. The results showed that the assimilated consumers preferred host brands more often than ethnic brands; the separated consumers preferred ethnic brands more often than host brands; and the integrated consumers exhibited brand preferences which were in between the other two categories. Thus the three categories were shown to differ significantly from each other in terms of their brand preferences. This result differs from the conclusions of Maldonado and Tansuhaj (2002) who found that although assimilated American Latinos were significantly different from those who were integrated and separated, the integrated and separated categories were not significantly different from each other.

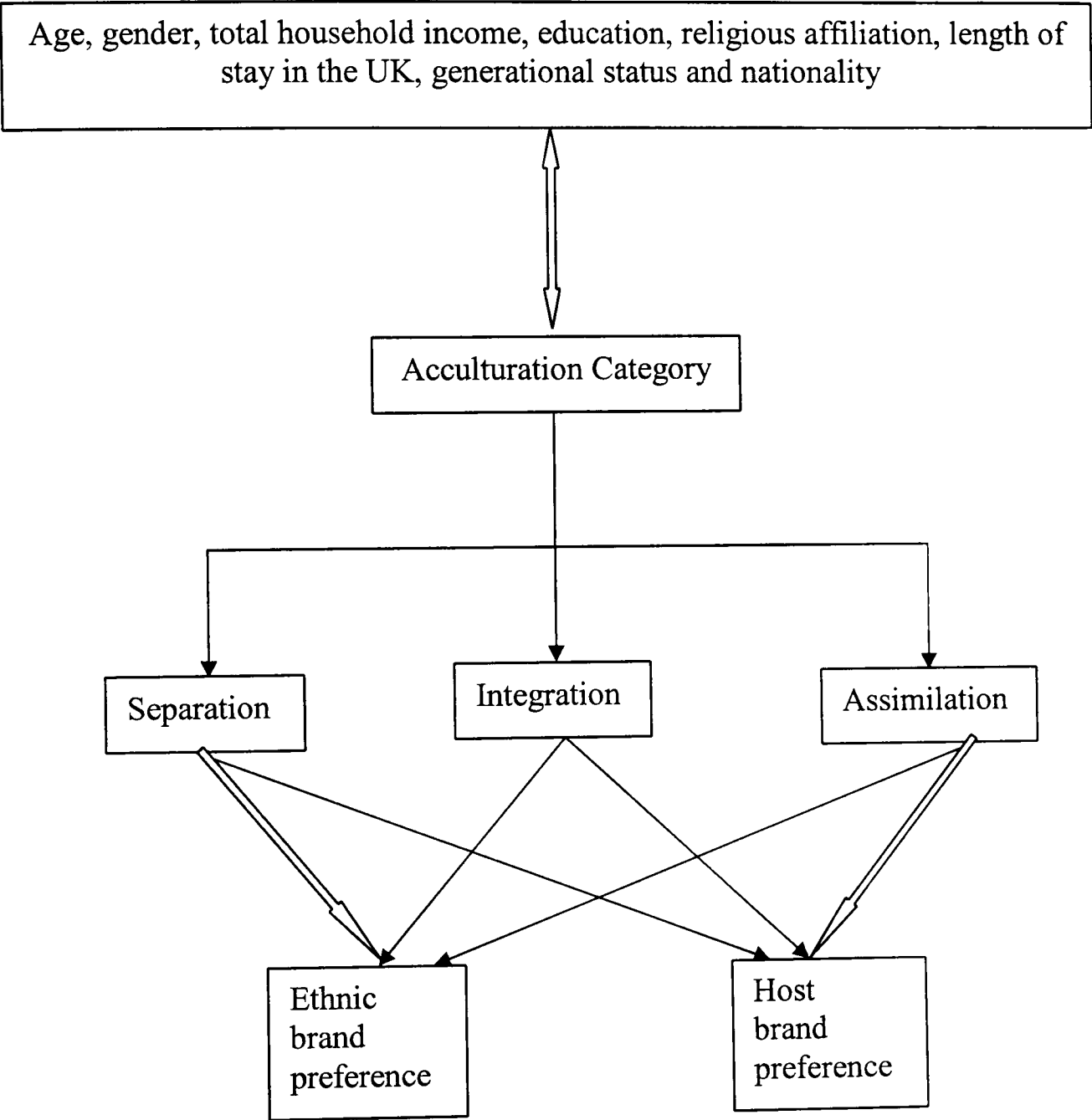
The brands used in the research were classified into groups based on their product or service types, such as food products, travel, entertainment and also according to their degree of involvement and value. For most of these above-mentioned types, the brand preferences shown by British Indians were in line with the results mentioned above. The exceptions to this were for financial services, cosmetics and low involvement brands. For financial service brands, all three acculturation categories

showed a higher preference for host brands. In the case of cosmetics and low involvement brands, membership of a particular acculturation category did not have a bearing on the brand preference pattern. As will be explained later, these variations have significant implications for the marketing of products and services of different types to ethnic minorities.

An objective of the research was to explore the impact of acculturation and demographics on overall brand preference. Results from the Chi Square Automatic Interaction Detection (CHAID) analysis showed acculturation categories to be the primary differentiators of brand preference and revealed demographic factors to be secondary differentiators of brand preference via these acculturation categories.

A key finding from the research concerns the nature of the relationship between the demographic factors and acculturation. The demographic factors included in the research were age, gender, total household income, education, religious affiliation, length of stay in the UK, generational status, job type and nationality. Although 'job type' was not shown to be significantly related with the acculturation categories, a relationship was shown with all of the other demographic characteristics. Surprisingly, none of the above-mentioned demographic factors moderated the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference. Figure 7.1 represents these findings.

Figure 7.1 A summary of major research findings



7.3 Research contributions

In this section, the research contributions are reviewed. The discussion begins by considering the academic contributions of the research, to the general field of acculturation, then more specifically to the field of consumer acculturation. The methodological contributions are also explained. The implications of the research for practitioners are then explored, with particular emphasis on the potential of

acculturation as a segmentation variable. The implications for developing marketing strategies that target ethnic minorities will also be considered.

7.3.1 Academic contributions

Seligman (2001) and Burton (2002) have made note of a serious lack of ethnic-specific research in the UK. Also, the potential benefits of understanding the ethnic minorities have been acknowledged in recent times (Burton, 2002; Emslie et al., 2007; Nwankwo and Lindridge, 1998). With its focus on British Indians, the largest ethnic minority population in the UK, this research contributes to the literature on acculturation and consumer acculturation in several ways.

First, it suggests that Berry's (1980) taxonomy is a valid framework for examining the acculturation of British Indians from an 'acculturation perspective'. This is one of the first studies to examine the acculturation of British Indians based on the different outcomes of acculturation, with the size of the population studied being broader than in previous UK studies. The research found that the three categories of acculturation as laid out by Berry's taxonomy also exist in the British Indian population. The existence of these three distinctive acculturation categories within the population suggests British Indians should not be considered as a homogeneous group. This has academic implications because it indicates that assimilation should not be treated as the only way of considering acculturation: in particular, it suggests that there are large unacculturated groups, namely separated and integrated British Indians, who differ in their behaviour from those who are assimilated.

Second, the study has shown that combining literatures on acculturation, consumer behaviour and ethnocentrism provides meaningful insights into the study of

consumer acculturation. While acculturation reflects the degree of immersion into the ethnic or host culture (Mendoza, 1989), consumer ethnocentrism is the attachment of individuals to ethnic preferences, such as preferences for ethnic brands over host brands, and the use of ethnic groups as reference groups. The research found that while separated consumers were more ethnocentric and preferred ethnic brands more often than host brands; assimilated consumers were less ethnocentric and preferred host brands more often than ethnic brands. Furthermore, integrated consumers' brand preferences fell between those of the other two acculturation categories. Also, the three acculturation categories differed significantly from each other on these brand preferences, confirming that the three acculturation categories have distinctive and different consumer behaviours. For researchers, these results validate the need to consider acculturation in studies of consumer behaviour involving ethnic minorities. It also implies that 'acculturation' can potentially be considered to be a segmentation variable for this particular ethnic group. Although culture is already recognised as a robust segmentation variable in some contexts, this study shows the value of considering the degree of acculturation specifically for this purpose. This also suggests that using acculturation categories may enable the study of a particular ethnic group more broadly than previously was deemed possible. For instance, in this research, a diverse range of British Indians, originating from different religious backgrounds and generations were included. Yet the acculturation dimension was a strong differentiator for their consumer behaviour.

This research has established the existence of three distinct acculturation categories amongst British Indians. This knowledge can be leveraged to study aspects of consumer behaviour beyond brand preferences amongst British Indians. Future

researchers may look into brand loyalty, shopper behaviour, media usage, etc. Although there is stream of work around shopper behaviour and there have also been some studies on shopper behaviour of acculturating Asian Americans (Ownbey and Horridge, 1997; Shim and Chen, 1996), this area could do with greater attention amongst British Indians. For example, shopper behaviour of British Indians can be studied across the acculturation categories to see if differences exist between the three. It would be interesting to study if the categories differ (a) in their choice of stores—traditional stores, mainstream supermarkets, convenience stores (b) in their frequency of shopping—monthly big shop with subsequent ‘top-up’, weekly shopping (c) on gender roles in shopping (d) on method of shopping—online, in store (e) on method of payment—credit card, cash, debit card (f) on use of store loyalty cards (g) on preference of pack sizes on items purchased—standard sizes, big ‘family’ sizes, small ‘top-up’ packs.

Ogden et al. (2004) have pointed out that currently there is a lack of product category breadth in consumer acculturation studies. This leads to a deficiency in understanding the intricacies in the effect of acculturation on brand preferences. Similarly, Burton (2000), Laroche et al. (1997), Omar et al. (2004), all have argued for consumer acculturation studies to involve a greater breadth in the product types than is presently seen in studies on this subject. The current study which has indeed looked at a wide range of product and service types also encompassing brand classifications based on high and low involvement, and high and low value, has addressed this lacuna and has shown the implications of gaining better understanding in this area.

The study has confirmed the effect of acculturation categories on brand preference, for a wide range of product and service types. For cosmetic and low-involvement product types, however, the study indicated no significant relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference, implying that some brand classifications are more culturally sensitive than others. This has implications for the design of future acculturation studies because researchers need to be aware of this issue, be clear about the cultural sensitivity of the products they are including; and the implications for interpreting their results. When there is particular interest in studying the impact of culture on consumer behaviour, future researchers must exercise care to include only culturally sensitive brands in their research and avoid using low involvement brands which appear to be insensitive to cultural differences. It may also be interesting in itself to investigate why some products are culturally sensitive while others are not.

The study also highlighted that integrated consumers have brand preferences that oscillate between the other two acculturation categories. When the integrated British Indians are emotional in their approach to the product preference, they tend to prefer ethnic brands and when this approach is rational, it results in more host brands being preferred. Observations such as this indicate many interesting avenues for further research using this study as a starting point. For example, future researchers could examine the effects of using emotional and rational messages for the same set of products to see whether there is oscillation between ethnic and host brand preferences, amongst British Indians of the 'integrated' category. Such a study amongst integrated consumers can have significant implications for practitioners which will be discussed in Section 7.3.2. Furthermore, it may be equally fascinating

to see whether any such shifts in brand preferences based on the nature of message used, are accompanied by shifts in purchase intentions.

Furthermore, the research adds to existing literature by validating the relationship between various demographic factors and different acculturation categories. All of the demographic factors included in the study except job type were shown to be associated with the acculturation categories of British Indians. The British Indians in each of the three acculturation categories were also different from each other in their demographic make-up. This enabled detailed profiling of the separated, integrated and assimilated British Indians. Such knowledge on the profiles of the acculturation categories has important policy implications which will be explained in Section 7.3.2.

Moreover, the results of the study go beyond the current understanding of the relationship between demographics and acculturation by revealing that these variables do not moderate the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference. Furthermore, by using CHAID analysis, the researcher found acculturation categories to be the primary differentiators of brand preference, with demographic factors only being secondary differentiators. Since the relationship between acculturation categories and brand preference did not change as a function of the demographic variables, the study has further identified that it is productive to study the consumer behaviour of British Indians purely based on their acculturation categories. This has implications for the design of future acculturation research and also for practitioners seeking to market their products to this group, as will be explained in Section 7.3.2.

Although consumption is personal, the research shows it to be strongly influenced by the acculturation category to which an individual belongs, with members within each of the three acculturation categories showing similar consumer behaviour. Reference groups have been identified as a means of studying consumer behaviour. Traditionally, reference groups have been thought of as including extended family, work colleagues, professional organisations, opinion leaders, and such like. The findings of this research indicate that acculturation category is also a valid reference group for consumer behaviour studies within the paradigms of cultural contact.

The research also makes several methodological contributions. First, the study establishes the adaptability of the CLSI instrument, developed originally for use amongst Latino Americans, for the British Indian population. Second, CHAID as a method for searching for relationships between predictor variables and a target outcome measure has not previously been used in such consumer acculturation studies. Since many of the demographic variables such as gender and employment status are capable of being captured as categorical rather than continuous data, previous analyses which used methods such as regression analysis tend not to include such demographic variables. However, the use of CHAID enables the inclusion of these categorical demographic variables. Furthermore, the use of this technique made it possible to look simultaneously at the relationship between the 12 predictor variables involving nine demographic factors and three acculturation categories, and a single target outcome, namely brand preference.

7.3.2 Contributions to practice

A key contribution of this research is in questioning the appropriateness of considering assimilation to be a linear progression from ethnic culture to host

culture. The research clearly shows the value of grouping British Indians into three distinct categories of separated, integrated and assimilated individuals. Each of these acculturation categories shows distinct and different consumer behaviour. This indicates that practitioners should not treat the entire British Indian segment as one homogeneous group; rather they need to consider the three acculturation categories as three different segments. In competitive markets, as market segmentation develops, there is an increasing requirement to adopt new methods by which to separate consumer groups. Segmentation methods which are able to combine the insights offered by psychographics with the measurement advantage of demographics would be considered ideal (Mitchell and Tate, 1998). The current research has shown that British Indians can clearly be grouped into three distinct acculturation categories based on their psychographics, namely, cultural lifestyles and it has also shown that the demographic make-up of these groups can be understood. Acculturation category thus has potential as a segmentation variable for practitioners targeting British Indians.

The research sheds light on how the demographic factors are related to the acculturation categories, and builds demographic profiles for each acculturation category. For example, a large percentage of assimilated individuals were either born in the UK or had lived here for a long time. A large percentage of separated British Indians held Indian nationality, while 95% of assimilated British Indians were British nationals. While caution should be exercised in extrapolating the results of this research to the wider British Indian population, the research suggests that the separated category is the largest group accounting for close to 60%, followed by the integrated category at around a quarter, while the assimilated category represented around a sixth of the population surveyed. Unlike the results of this research, which

identifies the separated category as the most sizeable segment, Chattaraman et al. (2010), found 53% of the total US Hispanic population to be from the integrated segment indicating this as the reason for the growth in the studies on this segment in the US. The separated category being largest, amongst British Indians, would suggest that both academicians and practitioners in the UK need to pay more attention to this category in particular. Further, demographic details such as total household income and educational levels will then help practitioners in deciding whether this segment is sufficiently attractive to target with the type of product or service offering that would be needed.

Another important result pertains to the consumer behaviour of British Indians across the different acculturation categories. As discussed earlier, British Indians across the three acculturation categories showed distinctly different preference patterns for host and ethnic brands across a variety of product and service types. Also, acculturation was found to be the primary differentiator for brand preferences. The implications for practitioners are that whatever the nature of products and services being marketed; whether they are high value, high involvement or low involvement, acculturation categories are the primary differentiators of brand preference for British Indians. Although demographic factors such as total household income and nationality are secondary differentiators, these variables can be considered within the context of the acculturation categories.

As the results of this research show, the media habits of British Indians are likely to vary according to their acculturation category. Understanding these media habits could help public bodies or policy makers to select the most appropriate vehicles for conveying important messages to this community. For example, Indians are known

to be more prone to type II diabetes. Public Health programmes aimed at early detection might usefully use insights about preferred television channels to reach individuals from different acculturation categories in order to urge them to attend diagnostic checks. Thus the findings showed that ethnic television channels, such as Zee television may be the best route for targeting separated individuals, while ITV might be a better route for reaching more assimilated individuals.

For brand owners and marketers, awareness of the three categories of British Indians, and their distinct brand preferences has numerous implications for developing marketing strategies that target ethnic minorities. By specifically targeting separated consumers who are relatively unacculturated and who prefer ethnic brands over host brands, owners of host brands could enjoy first mover advantage by establishing their brands and potentially creating brand loyalty amongst these consumers. This is because consumption patterns adopted in the separation stage may become habit forming in the long run, thus enabling marketers to develop competitive advantage in the rapidly growing ethnic market. Marketers could also benefit from using language and imagery that are understood and to which consumers can readily relate. For example, for separated consumers, using role models, brand ambassadors and actors from Indian films and TV dramas in marketing materials might be appropriate. Similarly, understanding more about the characteristics and behaviour of integrated consumers will help marketers to capture the untapped potential of consumers whose preferences swing between host and ethnic brands. For example, furthering the discussion in Section 7.3.1, practitioners who are currently marketing host brands can appeal to the untapped market of integrated consumers by using insights from the study about the fact that when these consumers are rational in their approach towards the product, they prefer host

brands. This will have implications for the suitability of particular messages in their marketing communications.

By understanding the brand preferences and characteristics of the different categories of British Indians, producers of ethnic brands will be better able to devise brand propositions and offerings that are relevant for even the assimilated group. Thus a brand designed to cater for separated British Indians could reach out to the integrated and assimilated consumers by offering brand extensions that meet the requirements of the other two categories. For example, by offering ready-to-eat food products in addition to basic ingredients preferred by separated British Indians, a food brand can reach out to assimilated consumers whose cooking skills on Indian dishes might be limited, being largely of second or third generation.

This research also questions the degree to which British Indians try to maintain previous patterns of consumption behaviour and the appropriateness or necessity of importing brands to make them available to these individuals. The way in which those attending the focus groups categorised brands as 'host' and 'ethnic' was not strictly on the basis of country of origin. For example, Anchor butter, a product made in New Zealand, was seen as 'ethnic' by these individuals.

Another contribution of this research is to the field of consumer market research. Market researchers could use acculturation category as a variable for understanding the unexplained differences in consumer behaviour within the British Indian population. For example, it would be simplistic to assume that taste preferences for food are the same across the entire British Indian population. Differentiating on the basis of acculturation might reveal some important distinctions, such as separated

consumers preferring spicy food rich in oil; or assimilated consumers exhibiting greater health consciousness, making them prefer lighter food.

The commercial attractiveness of the ethnic minority population in the UK has been acknowledged by the UK Market Research Society. The ethnic media landscape which has historically been used by ethnic brands and some Government departments has seen the entry of a few mainstream brands in more recent times in an attempt to market to the ethnic minorities in the UK. However, there is insufficient clarity amongst mainstream UK companies on how to approach the targeting of these ethnic minority consumers (Gooding, 1998). As seen in this section, the current research sheds light on various aspects of ethnic minority marketing from a practitioners' perspective.

7.4 Research limitations

There are a number of limitations of this research. First, the study did not capture individuals in the marginalisation category. As explained earlier, consumers in the marginalised category either fail to appear in or may be difficult to identify on mailing lists or databases. These individuals resist the pulls of both cultures and their brands, making it difficult to interpret much from their brand preferences. For these reasons, most previous acculturation research has not included this category. The current study would not have been able to identify marginalised individuals in the database that was used. Future research embracing a critical ethnographic enquiry could potentially seek to understand the acculturation of the marginalised category of British Indians and their consumer behaviour. This is because an ethnographic approach is able to offer direct, first-hand observation and daily participation in the lives of the marginalised individuals. By spending sufficient time with them during

the field work, researchers could gain access to their otherwise closed world and help them to reveal more about their lives.

Second, the sample employed in the research was drawn from a database provided by Tilda Ltd. This database was one of the largest available databases containing British Indian names. Given the high market share and penetration enjoyed by Tilda as a brand, its consumer base is quite diverse. Although this sample mirrored the census on some demographics such as age, gender, and religious affiliation, the fit in relation to other demographics such as education, employment, was more difficult to ascertain. Therefore, whether the British Indian names from Tilda database is representative of the entire British Indian population in the UK is not certain. However, the fit with some demographic aspects from the census is a positive sign.

Also, since the database used in this research was made up of individuals who had responded to a promotion from Tilda Ltd., which is a brand of Indian ethnic origin, there is a possibility that the size of the separation category might be larger than under normal circumstance. 'Rice' is culturally inherent product for British Indian consumers. Therefore, it is highly unlikely that any consumer, whatever their acculturation category, would abstain from consuming this product.

Information provided by Tilda about the brand's usage patterns suggests that it enjoys very high penetration amongst British Indians. Many consumers use this expensive brand for celebrations/special occasions and resort to using other brands (that may or may not be ethnic brands) on a day to day basis. Overall, there is no reason to consider that Tilda's consumers will be more or less ethnically oriented than others living in the UK. Furthermore, Takhar et al. (2010) have found that even

third generation British Indians consume ethnic brands as a means of re-engaging with their ethnic identity. This raises questions about whether using a sampling frame made up of purchasers of an ethnic brand is likely to cause a research bias. Only through further research using different sampling frames would it be possible to conclusively show whether these consumers of Tilda brand are significantly different from other British Indians. However, there is no reason to assume that this is the case. Furthermore, irrespective of the size of the separation category, the brand preference patterns of those in the separated acculturation category would be expected to remain the same. In addition, it was found that the demographic breakdown of the sample in relation to age, gender and religious affiliation did not vary greatly from figures for British Indians in the 2001 Census. It may, however, still be valuable to replicate this research using samples from other databases.

Furthermore, the survey employed was an online questionnaire and no print option was offered. Although previous studies by Huang (2006) and King and Miles (1995) have concluded that there is no significant difference in response between print and web surveys when posing questions with closed formats, the extent to which the results of the research can be applied to the British Indian population at large requires further investigation. This will be discussed in Section 7.5, which deals with future research.

Third, the pairs of host and ethnic brands used to study consumer behaviour in this research, while extensive, are by no means exhaustive. Differences involving other types of products and services are likely. For instance, some interesting differences in preferences might be expected around clothing. While separated consumers might still prefer to dress in a traditional manner, workplace compulsions may not always

offer this option. This is likely to have implications for the preferences exhibited across acculturation categories for home and work wear.

Fourth, although care was taken to include product and service types which had comparable offerings for both host and ethnic brands, there will be other product or service types, where meaningful ethnic brand option may not be available to British Indian consumers. In such cases, while separated and assimilated categories might still differ in their brand preferences, how this manifests itself merits further investigation. For example, amongst the available host options, separated consumers might prefer brands which are more culturally laden in terms of characteristics such as packaging colour, brand name, mode of communication used.

Fifth, the research captured the expressed brand preference of respondents i.e. what they said their preferences were, rather than actual purchase data. Given that such data is not available broken down by the ethnicity of purchasers; it would not have been possible to use it here. Although the preferences expressed by the respondents may reflect their actual preferences, there is also the possibility of response bias. The findings should therefore be interpreted with caution because of the artificial context of the research setting. Moreover brand preference, which is an attitude towards the brand, only when considered together with an intention to purchase results in actual purchase behaviour. Foxall et al. (1998) comment that it is too simplistic to assume that 'attitudes cause behaviours' because there could be other determinants of behaviour such as motives, past behaviour; and the social and physical setting in which the action takes place. In some instances, these can sometimes interfere with purchase intention, thus coming in the way of attitude-behaviour consistency. Though attitude-behaviour consistency is often assumed in

consumer behaviour studies, with many researchers relying on reported rather than actual behaviour, it is important to be aware of these potential limitations.

Lastly, the cross-sectional design of the study, as well as the categorical nature of the demographic variables, limits the causal inferences that could otherwise have been derived from the results. The results are only able to infer whether a relationship exists between demographic variables and acculturation categories. Although evidence from previous research in some instances, suggest a direct causal influence of demographic variables on acculturation categories, notwithstanding this, future studies that are longitudinal in nature may help explore questions about causality allowing further interrogation of these relationships.

7.5 Future research

Future research should consider a number of areas. The research results have established that Berry's (1980) three acculturation categories exist amongst British Indians. Future longitudinal research is required to follow immigrants over time to see how the passage of time impacts upon British Indians' transition across acculturation categories, and whether this brings corresponding changes in their consumption behaviour. Such longitudinal studies would also be amenable to causal analysis, allowing directional inferences to be made. Alternatively, a compressed longitudinal qualitative study involving three different generations from one family in the British Indian community could throw light on which of the three acculturation categories is prominent in each. It could also show how, why and when consumption changes occur during the acculturation process.

Second, like most research of its type, the study did not include individuals in the marginalisation category. It may be interesting for future research to use an ethnographic enquiry to reach these British Indians in order to gain understanding of the acculturation of this marginalised category of British Indians and their consumer behaviour. Such research could elaborate whether marginalisation is the least frequently occurring acculturation outcome. It could further confirm whether marginalised British Indians deliberately resist the pull of both cultures, appreciate the underlying reasons, and consider the implications for their brand preferences.

Third, in order to test the external validity of the results, future research should consider obtaining access to the actual census data and should draw together, within a single large project, the examination of various ethnic minority groups including British Indians living in the UK. A large study such as this could potentially address the generalisability questions, checking whether the results from this research are limited to one specific group, or whether they reflect a more general relationship between subcultural group membership, acculturation and consumer behaviour. A study of this nature could also shed light on whether the relationship between generational status and acculturation categories holds true for other ethnic minority communities in Britain such as Pakistanis, Bangladeshis, Sri Lankans and Caribbeans. This is especially relevant given the fact that different cultures do not necessarily acculturate in the same way as has been discussed by Berry et al. (1987), Quester et al. (2001) and Seitz (1998).

Fourth, in this research only products and services were included where comparable offerings for host and ethnic brands were available. Also, whilst a broad range of host and ethnic brands was included, this was not all-inclusive. Future research

could expand the study to other product and service types, such as clothing, watches, information technology, and jewellery. This could also extend understanding of role of those product types where meaningful ethnic brand options may not be available to the British Indian consumers, such as cars and consumer durables, examining how separated, integrated and assimilated consumers differ in their brand preferences for such products. While this study has focused on brand preference, future research might also reflect upon other aspects of consumer behaviour such as shopping orientations, media preferences, consumer satisfaction, brand loyalty, the consumer decision-making process and customer service expectations.

Fifth, the symbolic meaning of commercial brands, referred to as brand personality, signifies the values and beliefs of a culture (Aaker, 1997). Having understood the brand preference patterns for the three acculturation categories, future research could examine Aaker's (1997) brand personality dimensions of sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, ruggedness etc. to study their effect on shaping these preferences. Such a large-scale quantitative research could identify the most important brand personality dimensions for each of these three acculturation categories. This would help in determining how to differentiate a brand with respect to a particular product or service type. Conversely, it could highlight those brand personality dimensions that are stable and those which are not across the three acculturation categories. Alternatively, qualitative research could help to achieve insights into how brands are becoming established as ethnic or host within the British Indian culture. The motivational differences behind any observed brand preference patterns could also be studied.

Sixth, insights into the existence of the three acculturation categories, which differ in terms of their demographic make-up, can help in policy formulation for public bodies. Future research could look into devising programmes to assist in the cultural transition and social adjustment of first generation ethnic minorities by identifying those in the separated category. Such programmes to identify and educate recent immigrants earlier on might ease their adjustment to the UK rather than leaving them to learn by trial and error. Also, considering that many separated individuals have relatively low total household income, the Department of Work and Pensions may, for example, develop materials which specifically target separated individuals in order to educate them about available job training opportunities. This would ease their process of coping with the host environment.

Lastly, the literature on acculturation has been inconsistent in its use of acculturation-related terminologies. For example, the term ‘acculturation categories’ has been referred to as ‘acculturation outcomes’, ‘acculturative adaptations’, ‘varieties of acculturation’ and ‘modes of acculturation’. While these terms all carry the same meaning, different authors have used them differently in their studies; sometimes the same authors have adopted dissimilar terms in their different studies. Likewise, the terms bicultural or integrative, bidirectional or bidimensional, marginalisation or deculturation, have all been used interchangeably in the literature. This interchangeability makes it time-consuming and confusing to compare and contrast different acculturation studies. Considering that acculturation is an established topic, there is a pressing need for a consistent acculturation terminology to be developed.

7.6 Summary

The chapter concludes the thesis by considering the value of the research results for academic researchers and practitioners. The research strongly supports the view that acculturation affects consumer behaviour and yields interesting insights into the demographic variables which are associated with the acculturation categories of British Indians. The chapter also suggests numerous future research areas which would build on the findings presented here and stimulate further discussion in a complex but nevertheless interesting field of consumer acculturation research.

Economic recession and political compulsions might lead to a change of stance on immigration policies in Britain. This could result in the influx of highly skilled individuals in the future, not just from India but also from other countries. Also, with the increasing economic growth and resulting increase in consumer purchasing power in India, Indian consumers who come to the UK in the future may exhibit different consumption patterns from those who have done so in the past. Thus ongoing research is needed to capture forthcoming developments in the field of acculturation and the consequences for the consumer behaviour of British Indians and other ethnic minority consumers. It is hoped that this study will provide the basis and inspiration for further research on this important subject.

References:

- Aaker, D. A. (1991), *Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*, New York: The Free Press.
- Aaker, J. L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality", *Journal of Marketing Research*, August, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 347-356.
- Ahmed, Z. U., Johnson, J. P., Yang, X., Fatt, C. K., Teng, H. S. and Boon, L. C. (2004), "Does country of origin matter for low-involvement products?", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 102-120.
- Anderson, E. (1996), "Reasons, Attitudes, and Values: Replies to Sturgeon and Piper", *Ethics*, April, Vol. 106, No. 3, pp. 538-554.
- Andreasen, A. R. (1990), "Cultural Interpenetration: A Critical Consumer Research Issue for the 1990s", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 17, pp. 847-849.
- Andrews, D., Nonnecke, B. and Preece, J. (2003), "Electronic Survey Methodology: A case study in Reaching Hard-to-Involve Internet Users", *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 185-210.
- Antil, J. H. (1984), "Conceptualisation and operationalisation of involvement" in Kinnear, T. C. (Ed), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Association for Consumer Research, Vol. 11, Provo, UT, pp. 203-209.

Arbnor, I. and Bjerke, B. (1997), *Methodology for Creating Business Knowledge*, 2nd Edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Armstrong, G. and Kotler, P. (2007), *Marketing: An Introduction*, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Armstrong, J. and Overton, S. (1977), "Estimating non-response bias in mail surveys", *Journal of Marketing Research*, August, Vol. 14, pp. 396-402.

Askegaard, S., Arnould, E. J. and Kjeldgaard, D. (2005), "Postassimilationist Ethnic Consumer Research: Qualifications and Extensions", *Journal of Consumer Research*, June, Vol. 32, pp. 160-170.

Baldassini, J. G. and Flaherty, V. F. (1982), "Acculturation processing of Colombia Immigrants into American culture in Bergen County, New Jersey", *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 6, pp. 127-135.

Balnaves, M. and Caputi, P. (2001), *Introduction to Quantitative Research Methods: An Investigative Approach*, London: Sage.

Baron, R. M. and Kenny, D. A. (1986), "The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 51, No. 6, pp. 1173-1182.

Bearden, W. O. and Etzel, M. J. (1982), "Reference group influence on product and brand purchase decisions", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 9, pp. 183-194.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G. and Teel, J. E. (1989), "Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 15, pp. 473-481.

Beiser, M., Barwick, C., Berry, J. W., et al. (1988), *After the door has been opened: Mental health issues affecting immigrants and refugees in Canada*, Ottawa: Ministries of Multiculturalism and Health and Welfare.

Belk, R. W. (1984), "Cultural and Historical Differences in Concepts of Self and their Effects on Attitudes toward Having and Giving", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.11, pp. 752-753.

Belk, R. W., Bahn, K. D. and Mayer, R. N. (1982), "Developmental recognition of consumption symbolism", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 10, pp. 4-17.

Berry, J.W. (1980), "Acculturation as Varieties of Adaptation", in Padilla, A. M., *Acculturation: Theory, models and findings*, Boulder: Westview Press, pp. 9-27.

Berry, J. W. (1990), "Psychology of acculturation", in J. Berman (Ed.), *Cross-cultural perspectives*, Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, Vol. 37, pp. 201-234.

Berry, J. W. (1997), "Immigration, Acculturation and Adaptation", *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol.46, No.1, pp. 5-34.

Berry, J. W. (1999a), "Aboriginal Cultural Identity", *The Canadian Journal of Native Studies*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 1-36.

Berry, J. W. (1999b), "Intercultural Relations in Plural Societies", *Canadian Psychology*, Vol. 40, No.1, pp. 12-21.

Berry, J. W. (2001), "A Psychology of Immigration", *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 57, No.3, pp. 615-631.

Berry, J. W. and Kalin, R. (1995), "Multicultural and Ethnic Attitudes in Canada: An Overview of the 1991 National Survey", *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, Vol. 27, No. 3, pp. 301-320.

Berry, J. W. and Kim, U. (1988), "Acculturation and mental health", in P. Dasen, J. W. Berry and N. Sartorius (Ed.), *Health and cross-cultural psychology*, London: Sage, pp. 207-236.

Berry, J. W., Kim, U., Minde, T. and Mok, D. (1987), "Comparative Studies of Acculturative Stress", *The International Migration Review*, Vol. 21, No.3, pp. 491-511.

Berry, J. W., Kim, U., Power, S., Young, M. and Bujaki, M. (1989), "Acculturation attitudes in plural societies", *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol. 38, pp. 185-206.

Berry, J. W., Poortinga, Y. H., Segall, M. H. and Dasen, P. R. (1992), *Cross-cultural psychology: Research and applications*, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Berry, J. W., Phinney, J., Sam, D. and Vedder, P. (2006), *Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity and adaptation across national context*, Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Betancourt, H. and Lopez, S. R. (1993), "The Study of Culture, Ethnicity and race in American Psychology", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 48, No. 6, pp. 629-637.

Bhat, S. and Reddy, S. K. (1998), "Symbolic and functional positioning of brands", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 15, No.1, pp. 32-43.

Bhatia, S. (2002), "Acculturation, dialogical voices and the construction of the diasporic self", *Theory and Psychology*, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 55-77.

Bhopal, K. (1998), "South Asian women in East London: Religious Experience and Diversity", *Journal of Gender Studies*, Vol.7, No. 2, pp. 143-156.

Bhopal, R. S., Phillimore, P. and Kohli, H. S. (1991), "Inappropriate use of the term 'Asian': an obstacle to ethnicity and health research", *Journal of Public Health Medicine*, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 244-246.

Biel, A. L. (1992), "How brand image drives brand equity", *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 32, No. 6, pp. 6-13.

Black, J. S. and Gregersen, H. B. (1991), "The Other Half of the Picture: Antecedents of Spouse Cross-Cultural Adjustments", *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 461-477.

Blaxter, L., Hughes, C. and Tight, M. (2001), *How to research*, Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Bocock, R. (1993), *Consumption*, London: Routledge.

Bristow, D. N. and Asquith, J. A. L. (1999), "What's in a name? An intracultural investigation of Hispanic and Anglo consumer preferences and the importance of brand name", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 185-203.

Bruning, E. R. (1997), "Country of origin, national loyalty and product choice: The case of international air travel", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 59-74.

Bryman, A. (2001), *Social Research Methods*, Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and Cramer, D. (1997), *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS for Windows- A Guide for Social Scientists*, London: Routledge.

Burawoy, M., Collier, A., Breslau, D. and Abbott, A. (2005), *The Politics of Method in the Human Sciences: Positivism and its Epistemological others (Politics, History and Culture)*, Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Burke Johnson, R. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004), "Mixed-methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come", *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 33, No. 7, pp. 14-26.

Burton, D. (1996), "Ethnicity and consumer financial behaviour: a case study of British Asians in the pensions market", *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, Vol. 14, No. 7, pp. 21-31.

Burton, D. (2000), "Ethnicity, Identity and Marketing: A Critical Review", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 16, pp. 853-877.

Burton, D. (2002), "Incorporating ethnicity into marketing intelligence and planning", *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 20, No. 7, pp. 442-451.

Campbell, D. T. and Levine, R. A. (1968), "Ethnocentrism in intergroup relations", in Abelson, R., Aronson, E., McGuire, W., Newcomb, T., Rosenberg, M. and Tannebaum, P. (Eds), *Theories of Cognitive Consistency: A Sourcebook*, Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Cashmore, E. (1991), "Flying business class: Britain's new ethnic elite", *New Community*, Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 347-358.

Chattaraman, V., Lennon, S. J. and Rudd, N. A. (2010), "Social Identity Salience: Effects on Identity-Based Brand Choices of Hispanic Consumers", *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 27, No. 3, pp. 263-284.

Childers, T. L. and Rao, A. R. (1992), "The influence of familial and peer-based reference groups on consumer decisions", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol.19, pp. 198-211.

Choe, S. T. (1984), *Acculturation and consumption patterns of ethnic consumers: The case of Korean immigrants in Dallas, Texas*: Mississippi State University.

Churchill, G. A-Jr. (1995), *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundation*, Orlando, Florida: The Dryden Press.

Cleveland, M. and Laroche, M. (2007), "Acculturation to the global consumer culture: Scale development and research paradigm", *Journal of Business Research*. Vol. 60, pp. 249-259.

Cobb-Walgren, C. J., Beal, C. and Donthu, N. (1995), "Brand equity, brand preferences, and purchase intent", *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 25-40.

Cohen, J. W. (1988), *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, R. (1978), "Ethnicity: Problem and Focus in Anthropology", *Annual Review of Anthropology*, Vol. 7, pp. 379-403.

Coolican, H. (1994), *Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology*, London, GB: Hodder and Stoughton.

Costa, J. A. (1995), "The Social Organisation of Consumer Behaviour", in John F. Sherry, Jr. (Ed), *Contemporary Marketing and Consumer Behaviour: An Anthropological Sourcebook*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 213-244.

Creswell, J. W. (1994), *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative approaches*, Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951), "Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests", *Psychometrika*, September, Vol. 16, pp. 297-334.

Cuellar, I., Harris, L. C. and Jasso, R. (1980), "An acculturation scale for Mexican American normal and clinical populations", *Hispanic Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 2, pp. 199-217.

Cui, G. and Choudhury, P. (2002), "Marketplace diversity and cost-effective marketing strategies", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 54-73.

Dancey, C. P. and Reidy, J. (2007), *Statistics without maths for psychology*, England: Pearson Education Ltd.

Daniel, W. W. and Terrell, J. C. (1995), *Business Statistics for Management and Economics*, 7th Edition, Boston, USA: Houghton Mifflin.

Darling, J. R. and Kraft, F. B. (1977), "A Competitive Profile of Products and Associated Marketing Practices of Selected European and Non-European Countries", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 11, pp. 519-531.

Davis, T.R.V. and Young, R.B. (2002), "International marketing research: A management briefing", *Business Horizons*, March/April, Vol. 45, pp. 31-38.

Delener, N. (1990), "The effects of religious factors on perceived risk in durable goods purchase decision", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol.7, No. 3, pp. 27-38.

Deshpande, R., Hoyer, W. D. and Donthu, N. (1986), "The Intensity of Ethnic Affiliation: A Study of the Sociology of Hispanic Consumption", *The Journal of Consumer Research*, September, Vol. 13, No. 2, pp. 214-220.

- Deutskens, E., Ruyter, K.D., Wetzels, M. and Oosterveld, P. (2004), "Response Rate and Response Quality of Internet-Based Surveys: An Experimental Study", *Marketing Letters*, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 21-36.
- Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B. B. (2005), *Taking the Fear Out of Data Analysis*, London: Thompson Learning.
- Dibb, S., Simkin, L., Pride, W. M. and Ferrell, O. C. (2006), *Marketing-Concepts and Strategies*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Dillman, D.A. (1978), *Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method*, New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- Dillman, D.A. and Tortora, R. D. (1998), "Principles of constructing respondent-friendly Web surveys and their influence on the response", *American Statistical Association*, Proceedings of the Survey Research Methods Section, Dallas, Texas.
- Douglas, S. P. and Craig, C. S. (1983), *International Marketing Research*, New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Douglas, M. and Isherwood, B. (1978), *The World of Goods: Towards an Anthropology of Consumption*, New York: W. W. Norton.
- Du Plessis, P. J., Rousseau, G. G. and Blem, N. H. (1991), *Consumer Behaviour-A South African perspective*, Pretoria: Sigma publications.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. and Lowe, A. (2002), *Management Research: An Introduction*, London: Sage.

Edwards, R. D., Schweizer, C., Llacqua, V., Lai, H. K., Jantunen, M., Bayer-Oglesby, L. and Kunzli, N. (2006), "Time-activity relationships to VOC personal exposure factors", *Atmospheric Environment*, Vol. 40, pp. 5685-5700.

Edmunds, H. (1999), *The Focus Group Research Handbook*, Illinois, U.S.A: NTC/Contemporary Publishing Group, Inc.

Elliott, R. (1998), "A Model of Emotion-Driven choice", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol.14, pp. 95-108.

Emslie, L., Bent, R. and Seaman, C. (2007), "Missed opportunities? Reaching the ethnic consumer market", *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 31, pp. 168-173.

Engel, J. F. (1976), "Psychographic research in a cross-cultural non product setting", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 3, pp. 98-101.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D. and Miniard, P. W. (1993), *Consumer Behaviour*, Orlando: The Dryden Press.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D. and Miniard, P. W. (1995), *Consumer Behaviour*. International Edition, Florida: The Dryden Press.

Engel, J. F., Kollat, D. L. and Blackwell, R. D. (1973), *Consumer Behaviour*, 2nd ed., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Engel, J. F., Kollat, D. T. and Blackwell, R. D. (1968), *Consumer Behaviour*, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Erdem, T., Swait, J., Broniarczyk, S., Chakravarti, D., Kapferer, J. –N., Keane, M., et al. (1999), “Brand equity, consumer learning and choice”, *Marketing Letters*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 301-318.

Ericksen, M. K. (1996), “Using self-congruence and ideal congruence to predict purchase intention: A European perspective”, *Journal of Euro-Marketing*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 41-56.

Escalas, J. E. and Bettman, J. R. (2003), “You Are What They Eat: The Influence of Reference Groups on Consumers’ Connections to Brands”, *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 339-348.

Essoo, N. (2001), *A study of cultural influences on consumer behaviour in a small island economy*, The University of Warwick.

Evans, M., Jamal, A. and Foxall, G. (2009), *Consumer Behaviour*, West Sussex, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Farquhar, P. H. (1989), "Managing brand equity", *Marketing Research*, September, Vol. 1, pp. 24-33.

Feist, G. J. (2006), *The psychology of science and the origins of the scientific mind*, New Haven, C. T.: Yale University Press.

Felix-Ortiz, M., Newcomb, M. D. and Myers, H. (1994), "A multidimensional measure of cultural identity for Latino and Latina adolescents", *Hispanic Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 16, pp. 99-115.

Ferber, R., Blankertz, D. F. and Hollander, S-Jr. (1964), *Marketing Research*, New York, NY: The Ronald Press Co.

Field, A. (2009), *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*, 3rd Edition, London: Sage.

Fogg, B.J., Marshall. J., Laraki, O., Osipovich, A., Varma, C., Fang, N., Paul, J., Rangnekar, A., Shon, J., Swani, P. and Treinen, M. (2001), "What makes Web sites credible?: A report on a large quantitative study", *Human factors in computing systems*, Proceedings of the SIG CHI 2001 conference, Seattle, Washington, United States, March/April, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 61-68.

Foxall, G. R. and Goldsmith, R. E. (1994), *Consumer Psychology for Marketing*, London, GB: Routledge.

- Foxall, G. R., Goldsmith, R. and Brown, S. (1998), *Consumer Psychology for Marketing*, London: International Thomson Business Press.
- Freeman, M. A. and Bordia, P. (2001), "Assessing Alternative Models of Individualism and Collectivism: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis", *European Journal of Personality*, Vol. 15, pp. 105-121.
- Furnham, A. and Bochner, S. (1986), *Culture shock: Psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments*, London: Methuen.
- Gans, H. (1979), "Symbolic ethnicity: The future of ethnic groups and culture in America", *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, Vol. 2, pp. 1-20.
- Garcia, M. and Lega, L. I (1979), "Development of a Cuban ethnic identity questionnaire", *Hispanic Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 1, pp. 247-261.
- Gentry, J. W., Jun, S. and Tansuhaj, P. (1995), "Consumer Acculturation Processes and Cultural Conflict: How generalisable is a North American Model for Marketing Globally?", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 32, pp. 129-139.
- Ghaffarian, S. (1987), "The acculturation of Iranians in the United States", *The Journal of Social Psychology*. Vol. 127 (b), pp. 565-571.
- Goldlust, J. and Richmond, A. H. (1974), "A multivariate model of immigration adaptation", *International Migration Review*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 193-225.

Gomez, C. (2003), "The Relationship between Acculturation, Individualism/Collectivism, and Job Attribute Preferences for Hispanic MBAs", *Journal of Management Studies*, July, Vol. 40, No. 5, pp. 1089-1105.

Gooding, H. (1998), "Racial integration", *Marketing Week*, July, Vol. 16, pp. 1-4.

Gordon, M. M. (1964), *Assimilation in American Life*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Graeff, T. R. (1996), "Using promotional messages to manage the effects of brand and self-image on brand evaluations", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 4-18.

Graves, T. (1967), "Psychological acculturation in a tri-ethnic community", *South-Western Journal of Anthropology*, Vol. 23, pp. 337-350.

Gravetter, F. J. and Wallnau, L. B. (1988), *Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences*, 2nd ed., St. Paul, USA: West.

Greenbaum, T.L. (1998), *The Handbook for Focus Group Research*, California, U.S.A.: Sage.

Grubb, E. L. and Grathwohl, H. L. (1967), "Consumer self-concept, symbolism and marketing behavior: A theoretical approach", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 31, No. 4, pp. 22-27.

Gupta, S. P. (1975), "Changes in the food habits of Asian Indians in the United States: A case study", *Sociology and Social Research*, Vol. 60, No. 1, pp. 87-99.

Hair, J. F., Jr and Anderson, R. E. (1972), "Culture, Acculturation and Consumer Behaviour", *American Marketing Association*, Combined Proceedings, Spring and Fall conference, pp. 423-428.

Hair, J. F., Jr, Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. and Black, W. C. (1998), *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th ed., New Delhi, India: Pearson Education, Inc.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. and Black, W. C. (2006), *Multivariate Data Analysis*, India: Pearson Education Inc.

Hartwig, F. and Dearing, B. (1979), *Exploratory Data Analysis*, London: Sage Publications.

Hawkins, D. I., Best, R. J. and Coney, K. A. (2004), *Consumer Behaviour*, NY: McGraw Hill.

Henry (1976), "Cultural values do correlate with Consumer Behaviour". *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 13, No. 2, pp. 121-127.

Herche, J. (1994), "Ethnocentric Tendencies, Marketing Strategy and Import Purchase Behaviour", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 4-16.

Himmelfarb, H. S., Loar, R. M. and Mott, S. H. (1983), "Sampling by Ethnic Surnames: The Case of American Jews", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol. 47. pp. 247- 260.

Hirschman, E. C. (1983), "Religious Affiliation and Consumption Processes". *Research in Marketing*, Vol. 6, pp. 131-170.

Hofstede, G. (1980a), *Culture's Consequences*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1980b), "Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?", *Organisational Dynamics*, Summer, Vol. 9, pp. 42-63.

Hofstede, G. (1984), *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1991), *Cultures and Organisations: Software of the Mind*, London: McGraw-Hill.

Hong, Y., Morris, M. W., Chiu, C. and Benet-Martinez, V. (2000), "Multicultural minds: A dynamic constructivist approach to culture and cognition", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 55, pp. 709-720.

Howard, J. A and Sheth, J. N. (1969), *The Theory of Buyer Behaviour*, NY: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Hoyer, W. and Deshpande, R. (1982), "Cross-cultural influences on buyer behaviour: The impact of Hispanic ethnicity", in B. J. Walker et al. (Eds), *American Marketing Association*, Proceedings of the 1982 Educators' Conference, Chicago, IL, pp. 89-92.

Huang, H.M. (2006), "Do print and Web surveys provide the same results?", *Computers in Human Behaviour*, Vol. 22, pp. 334-350.

Hui, M. K., Joy, A., Kim, C. and Laroche, M. (1992), "Acculturation as Determinants of Consumer Behavior: Conceptual and Methodological Issues", *American Marketing Association*, Proceedings, Winter Educator's Conference, San Antonio, pp. 466-473.

Hussey, J. and Hussey, R. (1997), *Business Research: A Practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*, New York: Palgrave.

Hutcheson, G. and Sofroniou, N. (1999), *The multivariate social scientist*, London: Sage.

Hutnik, N. (1985), *Ethnic minority identity: The case of second generation South Asians in Britain*, Oxford University.

Hutnik, N. (1986), "Patterns of ethnic minority identification and modes of social adaptation", *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, Vol. 9, No.2, pp. 50-67.

Hutnik, N. (1991), *Ethnic Minority Identity in Britain: A social psychological perspective*, Oxford, GB: Clarendon Press.

Hutnik, N. and Barrett, M. (2003), "Ethnic Minority Identity: Twenty Years On", paper presented at the 11th *European Conference on Developmental Psychology*, Milan, Italy.

Jamal, A. and Chapman, M. (2000), "Acculturation and Inter-Ethnic Consumer Perceptions: Can you Feel What We Feel?" *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol.16, pp. 365-391.

Johnson, P. and Duberley, J. (2000), *Understanding management research: an introduction to epistemology*, London: Sage Publications.

Joy, A. and Dholakia, R. R. (1991), "Remembrance of things past: The meaning of Home and Possessions of Indian professionals in Canada", *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, Vol. 6, No. 6, pp. 385-402.

Jun, S., Ball, A.D. and Gentry, J.W. (1993), "Modes of Consumer Acculturation", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.20, pp. 76-82.

Kang, J. and Kim, Y. (1998), "Ethnicity and acculturation: influences on Asian American consumers' purchase decision making for social clothes", *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 91-117.

Kanuk, L. and Berenson, C. (1975), "Mail surveys and response rates: a literature review", *Journal of Marketing Research*, November, Vol. 12, pp. 440-453.

Kara, A. and Kara, N. R. (1996), "Ethnicity and Consumer choice: A study of Hispanic decision making processes across different acculturation levels", *Journal of Applied Business Research*, Spring, Vol.12, No. 2, pp. 22-34.

Kaynak, E. and Kara, A. (2002), "Consumer perceptions of foreign products: An analysis of product-country images and ethnocentrism", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 36, No. 7/8, pp. 928-949.

Keller, K.L. (2007), *Strategic Brand Management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*, New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

Keller, K. L. (2008), *Strategic Brand Management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*, 3rd Edition, Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Keller, K. L. and Lehmann, D. R. (2003), "How do brands create value", *Marketing Management*, May/June, pp. 26-31.

Kent, D. P. and Burnight, R. G. (1951), "Group Centrism in Complex Societies". *The American Journal of Sociology*, November, Vol. 57, No. 3, pp. 256-259.

Khairullah, D. Z. and Khairullah, Z. Y. (1999), "Behavioral Acculturation and Demographic Characteristics of Asian-Indian Immigrants in the United States of America", *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, Vol.19, No. 1/2, pp. 57-80.

Kiesler, S. and Sproull, L.S. (1986), "Response effects in the electronic survey", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Fall, Vol. 50, pp. 402.

Kiesler, S., Siegel, J. and McGuire, T. (1984), "Social psychological aspects of computer-mediated communication", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 39, pp. 1123-1134.

Kim, M. S. (1980), *Impact of handbook television (HTBC) on Korean immigrants in New York metropolitan area*, New York: Columbia University.

Kim, U., Triandis, H.C., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S. and Yoon, G. (1994), "Introduction" in *Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, method and applications*, Sage: London.

Kim, Y. Y. (1985), "Communication and Acculturation", in L. A. Samovar and R. E. Porter (Eds), *Intercultural Communication: A Reader*, Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing, pp. 379-387.

King, W.C. and Miles, E.W. (1995), "A quasi-experimental assessment of the effect of computerizing non-cognitive paper-and-pencil measurements: A test of measurement equivalence", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, December, Vol. 80, pp. 643-651.

Kinney, T. and Taylor, J. (1991), *Marketing Research—An Applied Approach*, London: McGraw–Hill.

Klemperer, P. (1987), "Markets with Consumer Switching Costs", *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May, Vol. 102, No. 2, pp. 375-394.

Kline, P. (1999), *The handbook of psychological testing*, London; Routledge.

Kotler, P. (1972), *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning and Control*, 2nd Edition, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice- Hall, Inc.

Kotler, P. (1988), *Marketing management: Analysis, planning and control*, New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Krauss, S. E. (2005), "Research paradigms and meaning making: a Primer", *The Qualitative Report*, Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 758-770.

Krugman, H. (1965), "The impact of television in advertising: learning without involvement", *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol. 29, pp. 583-596.

Kucukemiroglu, O. (1999), "Market segmentation by using consumer lifestyle dimensions and ethnocentrism: An empirical study", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 33, No. 5/6, pp. 470-487.

Kurian, G. (1986), "Intergenerational integration with special reference to Indian families", *Indian Journal of Social Work*, Vol.47, pp. 39-49.

Kwak, K. and Berry, J. W. (2001), "Generational differences in acculturation among Asian families in Canada: A comparison of Vietnamese, Korean, and East-Indian groups", *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol.36, No. 3, pp. 152-162.

Laroche, M., Joy, A., Hui, M. and Kim, C. (1992), "An examination of ethnicity measures: convergent validity and cross-cultural equivalence", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 150-157.

Laroche, M., Kim, C., Hui, M. and Tomiuk, M. A. (1997), "A multidimensional perspective on acculturation and its relative impact on consumption of convenience goods", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 10, No. 1/2, pp. 33-56.

Lee, W. N. (1989), "The Mass- Mediated Consumption Realities of Three Cultural Groups", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.16, pp. 771-778.

Lee, W. N. (1993), "Acculturation and advertising communication strategies: a cross-cultural study of Chinese and Americans", *Psychology and Marketing*. Vol. 10, No. 5, pp. 381-397.

Lee, W. and Tse, D. (1994), "Changing Media Consumption in a New Home: Acculturation Patterns among Hong Kong immigrants to Canada", *Journal of Advertising*, March, Vol. 23, No. 1, pp. 57-70.

Lee, W. N. and Um, K. H. R. (1992), "Ethnicity and consumer product evaluation: a cross-cultural comparison of Korean immigrants and Americans", in Sherry, J. F., Jr. and Sternthal, B. (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Association for Consumer Research, Vol. 19, Provo, UT, pp. 429-436.

Lerman, D., Maldonado, R. and Luna, D. (2009), "A theory-based measure of acculturation: The shortened cultural life style inventory", *Journal of Business Research*, April, Vol. 62, No. 4, pp. 399-406.

Levine, R. A. and Campbell, D. T. (1972), *Ethnocentrism: Theories of Conflict, Ethnic Attitudes, and Group Behaviour*, New York: Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Levy, S. J. (1959), "Symbols for Sales", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 37, No. 4, pp. 117-124.

Lewis, I. M. (1976), *Social Anthropology in Perspective*, Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.

Liebkind, K. (2000), "Acculturation", in R. Brown and S. Gaetner (Eds). *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: vol. 3, Intergroup processes*, Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 386-404.

Lindridge, A. and Dhillon, K. (2005), "Cultural role confusion and memories of a lost identity: How Non-Consumption perpetuates Marginalisation", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 32, pp. 408-421.

Lindridge, A. and Dibb, S. (2003), "Is 'culture' a justifiable variable for market segmentation? A cross-cultural example", *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol.2, No.3, pp. 269-286.

Lindridge, A. M. (2001), *Investigating the extent to which British Indians draw upon Asian Indian and British Caucasian cultural values in Brown Good purchase*. The University of Warwick.

Lindridge, A. M., Hogg, M. K. and Shah, M. (2004), "Imagined Multiple Worlds: How South Asian Women in Britain use family and friends to navigate the "Border Crossings" between Household and Societal Contexts", *Consumption, Markets and Culture*, September, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 211-238.

Magana, J. R., Rocha, O., Magana, J. A. H. A., Fernandez, M. I. and Rulnick, S. (1996), "Revisiting the Dimensions of Acculturation: Cultural Theory and Psychometric Practice", *Hispanic Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 444-468.

Maldonado, R. and Tansuhaj, P. (1998), "The Relationship Between Self-Esteem and Latino Consumer Acculturation", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 25, pp. 252-257.

Maldonado, R. and Tansuhaj, P. (1999), "Transition Challenges in Consumer Acculturation: Role Destabilization and Changes in Symbolic Consumption", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 26, pp. 134-140.

Maldonado, R. and Tansuhaj, P. (2002), "Segmenting a Local Latino Market using Berry's acculturation taxonomy", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.29, pp. 414-420.

Malhotra, N. K. (2004), *Marketing research: an applied orientation*, 4th Edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Malhotra, N. K. and Birks, D. F. (2007), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach*, Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Malhotra, N. K., Agarwal, J. and Peterson, M. (1996), "Methodological issues in cross-cultural marketing research", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 13, No. 5, pp. 7-43.

Mann, J. (1958), "Group relations and the marginal man", *Human Relations*, Vol. 11, pp. 77-92.

Marin, G. and Gamba, R. J. (1996), "A New Measurement of Acculturation for Hispanics: The Bidimensional Acculturation Scale for Hispanics (BAS)". *Hispanic Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 297-316.

Marin, G., Sabogal, F., Marin, B.V., Sabogal, R. O. and Stable, E.J.P. (1987), "Development of a short acculturation scale for Hispanics", *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 183-205.

Market Research Society (MRS) (2008) [online], "Guidelines for conducting research amongst different ethnic groups", *Ethnic Research Network*, available: http://www.mrs.org.uk/networking/ern/downloads/guidance_ethnic_research.pdf, pp. 1-6 (accessed: 02/02/2008).

Martin, C. L. (1998), "Relationship marketing: a high-involvement product attribute approach", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 6-26.

Mathur, A., Moschis, G. P. and Lee, E. (2003), "Life events and brand preference changes", *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 3, No. 3, pp. 129-141.

Matsuoka, J. K. (1990), "Differential Acculturation among Vietnamese refugees", *Social Work*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 341-345.

Mavreas, V., Bebbington, P. and Der, G. (1989), "The structure of and validity of acculturation: Analysis of an acculturation scale", *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, Vol. 24, pp. 233-240.

Mayhall, C. W. (2002), *On Logical Positivism*, CA, Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing.

McCracken, G. (1986), "Culture and Consumption: a theoretical account of the structure and movement of cultural meaning of consumer goods", *Journal of Consumer Research*, June, Vol. 13, pp. 71-84.

Mehta, R. and Belk, W. (1991), "Artefacts, Identity, and Transition: Favorite Possessions of Indians and Indian Immigrants to the United States", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol.17, pp. 398-411.

Mendoza, R. H. (1984), "Acculturation and Sociocultural variability", in J. L. Martinez Jr. and R.H. Mendoza (Eds), *Chicano psychology*, Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Mendoza, H. R. (1989), "An Empirical Scale to measure type and degree of acculturation in Mexican-American Adolescents and Adults", *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol.20, No.4, pp. 372-385.

Mendoza, R. H. and Martinez, J. L., Jr (1981), "The measurement of acculturation", in A. Baron Jr (Ed.), *Explorations in Chicano psychology*, New York: Praeger.

Mitchell, V. –W. (1996), "Assessing the Reliability and Validity of Questionnaires: An Empirical Example", *Journal of Applied Management Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 199-208.

Mitchell, V. –W. and Tate, E. (1998), "Do consumers' star signs influence what they buy?", *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 16, No. 4, pp. 249-259.

Mitroff, I. I. and Churchman, C. W. (1992), "Debate-MBA: Is the traditional model doomed?", *Harvard Business Review*, Nov/ Dec, pp. 128-140.

Monga, A. B. and John, D. R. (2004), "Consumer Response to Brand Extensions: Does Culture Matter?", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 31, pp. 216-222.

Morello, G. (1984), "The 'Made In' Issue: A Comparative Research on the Image of Domestic and Foreign Products", *European Research*, January, Vol. 12, pp. 5-21.

Morgan, D. L. (1988), *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research* (Sage University Paper Series on Qualitative Research Methods, Vol. 16), California, U.S.A: Sage.

Morrel-Samuels, P. (2003), "'Web surveys' hidden hazards", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 81, No. 7, pp. 16-18.

Murdock, G. P. (1931), "Ethnocentrism", in Edwin R. A. Seligman (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, New York: Macmillan, pp. 613-614.

Murphy, J. M. (1987), *Branding: A key marketing tool*, London: Macmillan.

Navas, M., Rojas, A. J., Garcia, M. and Pumares, P. (2007), "Acculturation strategies and attitudes according to the Relative Acculturation Extended Model (RAEM): The perspectives of natives versus immigrants", *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol.31, pp. 67-86.

Nguyen, N. and Williams, H. (1989), "Transition from East to West: Vietnamese adolescents and their parents", *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, Vol.28, pp. 505-515.

Nicosia, F. M. (1966), *Consumer Decision Processes*, NJ: Prentice Hall Inc.

Nwankwo, S. and Lindridge, A. (1998), "Marketing to ethnic minorities in Britain". *Journal of Marketing Practice: Applied Marketing Science*, Vol. 4, No. 7, pp. 200-216.

O'Guinn, T. C. and Faber, R. J. (1985), "New Perspectives on Acculturation: The Relationship of General and Role Specific Acculturation with Hispanics' Consumer Attitudes", in Elizabeth C. Hirschman and Morris B. Holbrook (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 12, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 113-117.

O'Guinn, T. C., Lee, W. and Faber, R. (1986), "Acculturation: The impact of divergent paths on buyer behaviour", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 13, pp. 579-583.

O'Guinn, T.C. and Meyer, T.P. (1983), "Segmenting the Hispanic Market: The use of Spanish-Language radio", *Journal of Advertising Research*, December, Vol. 23, No. 6, pp. 9-16.

Oakley, A. (2000), *Experiments in knowing: Gender and method in the social sciences*, New York: The New Press.

Odgen, D. T., Odgen, J. R. and Schau, H. J. (2004), "Exploring the Impact of Culture and Acculturation on Consumer Purchase Decisions: Toward a Microcultural Perspective", *Academy of Marketing Science Review*. Vol. 2004, No. 3, pp. 1-16.

Olmedo, E. L. and Padilla, A. M. (1978), "Empirical and construct validation of measure of acculturation for Mexican-Americans", *The Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 105, pp. 178-187.

Olmedo, E. L., Martinez, J. L. and Martinez, S. R. (1978), "Measure of acculturation for Chicano adolescents", *Psychological Reports*, Vol. 42, pp. 159-170.

Olsen, B. (1995), "Brand Loyalty and Consumption Patterns: The Lineage Factor", in John F. Sherry, Jr. (Ed), *Contemporary Marketing and Consumer Behaviour: An Anthropological Sourcebook*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 245-281.

Omar, O. E., Hirst, A. and Blankson, C. (2004), "Food Shopping Behaviour among Ethnic and Non-Ethnic communities in Britain", *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 39-57.

- Oswald, L. R. (1999), "Culture Swapping: Consumption and the Ethnogenesis of Middle- Class Haitian Immigrants", *Journal of Consumer Research*, March, Vol. 25, pp. 303-318.
- Ownbey, S. F. and Horridge, P. E. (1997), "Acculturation Levels and Shopping Orientations of Asian-American Consumers", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 14, No.1, pp. 1-18.
- Padilla, A. M. (1980), "The Role of Cultural Awareness and Ethnic Loyalty in Acculturation", in Amado M. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: Theory, Models, and Some New Findings*, Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc., pp. 47-84.
- Pallant, J. (2007), *SPSS Survival Manual*, Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.
- Paloma, V., Garcia-Ramirez, M., Mata, M. and Andaluza, A. (2010), "Acculturative integration, self and citizenship construction: The experience of Amal-Andaluza, a grassroots organisation of Moroccan women in Andalusia", *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, March, Vol. 34, No. 2, pp. 101-113.
- Palumbo, F. A. and Teich, I. (2004), "Market segmentation based on level of acculturation", *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 22, No.4, pp. 472-484.
- Pankhania, A., Lee, N. and Hooley, G. (2007), "Within-country ethnic differences and product positioning: a comparison of the perceptions of two British sub-cultures", *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol. 15, pp. 121-138.

Park, R. E. (1928), "Human migration and the marginal man", *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 33, No. 6, pp. 881-893.

Penaloza, L. (1989), "Immigrant Consumer Acculturation", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.16, pp. 110-118.

Penaloza, L. (1994), "Atravesando Fronteras/Border Crossings: A Critical Ethnographic Exploration of the Consumer Acculturation of Mexican Immigrants", *Journal of Consumer Research*, June, Vol.21, pp. 32-54.

Peter, J. P. (1979), "Reliability: A Review of Psychometric Basics and Recent Marketing Practices", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 16, pp. 6-17.

Peter, J. P. (1981), "Construct validity: A Review of Basic Issues and Marketing Practices", *Journal of Marketing Research*, May, Vol. 18, pp. 133-145.

Phinney, J. S. (1990), "Ethnic identity in adolescents and adults: review of research", *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 108, No. 3, pp. 499-514.

Phinney, J. S. (1996), "When we talk about American ethnic groups, what do we mean?", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 51, pp. 918-927.

Phinney, J., Lochner, B. and Murphy, R. (1990), "Ethnic identity and psychological adjustment", in A. Stiffman and L. Davis (Eds), *Ethnic issues in adolescent mental health*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage. pp. 53-72.

Podoshen, J. S. (2006), "Word of mouth, brand loyalty, acculturation and the American Jewish consumer", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23, No. 5, pp. 266-282.

Popper, K. (1959), *The Logic of Scientific Discovery*, London: Hutchinson.

Punch. M. (1998), *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*, London: Sage.

Quester, P. G., Karunaratna, A. and Chong, I. (2001), "Australian Chinese Consumers: Does Acculturation Affect Consumer Decision Making?", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 7-28.

Quester, P.G. and Chong, I. (2001), "Validating acculturation models: the case of the Australian-Chinese consumers", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol.18, No.3, pp. 203-218.

Rajagopalan, R. and Heitmeyer, J. (2005), "Ethnicity and consumer choice", *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol.9, No.1, pp. 83-105.

Ray, N., Griggs, K. and Tabor, S. (2001) [online], "Web based survey research workshop", *WDSI*, April, available: <http://telecomm.boisestate.edu/research/> (accessed: 02/02/2008).

Redfield, R., Linton, R. and Herskovits, M. (1936), "Memorandum on the study of acculturation", *American Anthropologist*, Vol. 38, pp. 149-152.

Rickard, M. (1994), "Liberalism, multiculturalism, and minority protection", *Social Theory and Practice*, Vol. 20, pp. 143-170.

Riezebos, R. (2003), *Brand Management*, London: Prentice Hall.

Robinson, C. (1988), "The new Indian middle class in Britain", *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 456-473.

Rosenthal, D., Ranieri, N. and Klimidis, S. (1996), "Vietnamese adolescents in Australia: Relationships between Perceptions of Self and Parental Values, Intergenerational Conflict, and Gender Dissatisfaction", *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol.31, No. 2, pp. 81-91.

Ross, I. (1971), "Self-concept and brand preference", *Journal of Business*, Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 38-50.

Rudmin, F.W. (2003), "Critical History of the Acculturation Psychology of Assimilation, Separation, Integration, and Marginalization", *Review of General Psychology*, Vol.7, No.1, pp. 3-37.

Rudmin, F. W. (2006) [online], "Debate in science: The case of acculturation", *AnthroGlobe Journal*, available: http://malinowski.kent.ac.uk/docs/rudminf_acculturation_061204.pdf or http://www.anthroglobe.ca/docs/rudminf_acculturation_061204.pdf (accessed: 02/03/2010).

Ryder, A., Alden, L. and Paulhus, D. (2000), "Is acculturation uni-dimensional or bi-dimensional? Head-to-head comparison in the prediction of personality, self identity, and adjustment", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, July, pp. 49-65.

Sahai, R. (1993), *Acculturation attitudes, values and acculturative stress in first and second generation East Indians*, Queen's University.

Sahlins, M. (1976), *Culture and Practical Reason*, Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Sanchez, J. I. and Fernandez, M. (1993), "Acculturative stress among Hispanics: A bidimensional model of ethnic identification", *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 23, pp. 654-668.

Sax, L. J., Gilmartin, S. K. and Bryant, A. N. (2003), "Assessing response rates and non response bias in web and paper surveys", *Research in Higher Education*, Vol. 44, No. 4, pp. 409-432.

Schiffman, L. G. and Kanuk, L. L. (1992) *Consumer Behaviour*, New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

Schmidt, W.C. (1997), "World-Wide Web survey research: Benefits, potential problems, and solutions", *Behaviour Research Methods, Instruments & Computers*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 274-279.

Segal, M. and Sosa, L. (1983), "Marketing to Hispanic Community", *California Management Review*, Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 120-134.

Seitz, V. (1998), "Acculturation and direct purchasing behaviour among ethnic groups in the US: implications for business practitioners", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 15, No.1, pp. 23-31.

Sekaran, U. (1983), "Methodological and theoretical issues and advancements in Cross-Cultural research", *Journal of International Business*, Vol. 14, pp. 61-73.

Sekhon, Y.K. (2007), "'From saris to sarongs' ethnicity and intergenerational influences on consumption among Asian Indians in the UK", *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol.31, No.2, pp. 160-167.

Sekhon, Y. K. and Szmigin, I. (2009), "The bicultural value system: Undertaking research among ethnic audiences", *International Journal of Market Research*, Vol. 51, No. 6, pp. 751-771.

Seligman, P. (2001), "Ethnic minorities: a marketer's segmented breakdown", *Brand Strategy*, September, pp. 10-15.

Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A. and Shin, J. (1995), "Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedents and Moderators, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 23, No. 1, pp. 26-37.

Sheth, J. N. (1977), "Demographics in Consumer Behaviour", *Journal of Business Research*, June, Vol. 5, pp. 129-138.

Shim, S. and Chen, Y. Q. (1996), "Acculturation characteristics and Apparel shopping orientations: Chinese students and spouses from the People's Republic of China residing in the Southwest", *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, Vol.14, No. 3, pp. 204-215.

Shimp, T. A. and Sharma, S. (1987), "Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE", *Journal of Marketing Research*, August, Vol. 24, pp. 280-289.

Silverman, D. (1994), *Interpreting Qualitative Data*, London: Sage.

Singelis, T. M., Triandis, H. C., Bhawuk, D. P. S. and Gelfand, M. J. (1995), "Horizontal and vertical dimensions of individualism and collectivism: A theoretical and measurement refinement", *Cross-Cultural Research: The Journal of Comparative Social Science*, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 240-275.

- Sirgy, M. J. (1982), "Self-concept in consumer behaviour: a critical review", *Journal of Consumer Research*, December, Vol. 9, pp. 287-300.
- Sirgy, M. J., Grewal, D., Mangleburg, T. F., Park, J., Chon, K., Claiborne, C. B., Johar, J. S. and Berkman, H. (1997), "Assessing the predictive validity of two methods of measuring self-image congruence", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 229-241.
- Sirgy, M. J., Johar, J. S., Samli, A. C. and Caliborne, C. B. (1991), "Self-congruity versus functional predictors of consumer behaviour", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Fall, Vol. 19, pp. 363-375.
- Sletto, R.F. (1940), "Pretesting of questionnaires", *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 193-200.
- Sodowsky, G. R. and Carey, J. (1988), "Relationship between acculturation-related demographics and cultural attitudes of an Asian-Indian immigrant group", *Journal of Multicultural Counselling and Development*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 117-135.
- Sodowsky, G. R., Lai, E. W. M. and Plake, B. S. (1991), "Moderating Effects of Sociocultural Variables on Acculturation Attitudes of Hispanics and Asian Americans", *Journal of Counseling and Development*, Vol. 70, pp. 194-204.
- Solomon, M. R. (1983), "The role of products in social stimuli: a symbolic interactionism perspective", *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 10, pp. 319-329.

Solomon, M. R., Marshall, G. W., Stuart, E. W., Barnes, B. and Mitchell, V. -W. (2009), *Marketing-Real People, Real Decisions*, England: Pearson Education Limited.

Sommerlad, E. A. and Berry, J. W. (1970), "The Role of Ethnic Identification in Distinguishing Between Attitudes towards Assimilation and Integration of a Minority Racial Group", *Human Relations*, Vol. 23, No.1, pp. 23-29.

Song, H. H. and Shin, E. H. (2004), "Acculturation and Consumption behaviour of Korean immigrants", *Development and Society*, Vol. 33, No. 1, pp. 39-79.

SPSS UK Ltd. (2005a), *Advanced Techniques: ANOVA-Training Course Handbook*, United Kingdom: SPSS Inc.

SPSS UK Ltd. (2005b), *Market Segmentation using SPSS-Training Course Handbook*, United Kingdom: SPSS Inc.

Srinivasan, S. (1992), "The class position of the Asian petty bourgeoisie", *New Community*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 61-74.

Stayman, D. G. and Deshpande, R. (1989), "Situational Ethnicity and Consumer Behavior", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 16, pp. 361-371.

Stratford, N., Simmonds, N. and Nicholas, G. (2003) [online], "National Travel Survey 2002: Incentives Experiment Report", available: http://www.dft.gov.uk/stellent/groups/dft_transstats/documents/page/dft_transstats_02z33300.doc (accessed: 04/02/2008).

Sumner, W. G. (1906), *Folkways: The Sociological Importance of Usages, Manners, Customs, Mores and Morals*, New York: Ginn & Co.

Szapocznik, J. and Kurtines, W. (1980), "Acculturation, biculturalism and adjustment among Cuban Americans", in A. M. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: Theory, Models and Some New Findings*, Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Szapocznik, J. and Kurtines, W. (1993), "Family psychology and cultural diversity", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 48, pp. 400-407.

Szapocznik, J., Scopetta, M. A., Kurtines, W. and Aranalde, M. A. (1978), "Theory and Measurement of Acculturation", *Interamerican Journal of Psychology*, Vol.12, pp. 113-130.

Takhar, A., Maclaran, P., Parsons, E. and Broderick, A. (2010), "Consuming Bollywood: Young Sikhs social comparisons with heroes and heroines in Indian films", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 26, No. 11-12, pp. 1057-1073.

Thietart, R. –A. (2001), *Doing Management Research: A Comprehensive Guide*, London: Sage Publications.

- Thomas, A. B. (2003), *Research skills for management studies*, London: Routledge.
- Triandis, H. (1994), "Theoretical and methodological approaches to the study of collectivism and individualism", in Kim, U., Triandis, H., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S. and Yoon, G. (Ed), *Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method and Applications*, Thousand Oaks: Sage, pp. 41-51.
- Triandis, H. C. (1972), *The analysis of subjective culture*, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Triandis, H. C. (1993), "Collectivism and Individualism as Cultural Syndromes", *Cross-Cultural Research*, Vol. 27, No. 3-4, pp. 155-180.
- Triandis, H. C. (2004), "The many dimensions of culture", *Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 88-93.
- Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M. J., Asai, M. and Lucca, N. (1988), "Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-ingroup relationships", *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, Vol. 54, No. 2, pp. 323-338.
- Triandis, H. C., Kashima, Y., Hui, C. H., Lisansky, J. and Marin, G. (1982), "Acculturation and biculturalism indices among relatively acculturated Hispanic young adults", *Interamerican Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 16, pp. 140-149.

Tsai, J. L., Ying, Y. W. and Lee, P. A. (2000), "The meaning of 'being Chinese' and 'being American': Variation among Chinese American young adults". *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 31, pp. 302-332.

Tull, D. S. and Hawkins, D. I. (1993), *Marketing Research: Measurement & Method*, New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Tull, D. S. and Hawkins, D. I. (1994), *Essentials of Marketing Research*, New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Ustuner, T. and Holt, D. B. (2007), "Dominated Consumer Acculturation: The Social Construction of Poor Migrant Women's Consumer Identity Projects in a Turkish Squatter", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 34, pp. 41-56.

Valencia, H. (1985), "Developing an Index to Measure "Hispanicness", in Elizabeth C. Hirschman and Morris B. Holbrook (Ed), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 12, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 118-121.

Van Trijp, H. C. M., Hoyer, W. D. and Inman, J. J. (1996), "Why switch? Product category-level explanations for true variety-seeking behaviour", *Journal of Marketing Research*, August, Vol. 33, pp. 281-292.

Wallendorf, M. and Arnould, E. J. (1988), "My favourite things: a cross cultural inquiry into object attachment, possessiveness, and social linkage", *Journal of Consumer Research*, March, Vol. 14, pp. 531-547.

Ward, C. (1996), "Acculturation", in D. Landis and R. Bhagat (Eds), *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, 2nd Edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 124-147.

Ward, C. (2001), "The A, B, Cs of Acculturation", in David Matsumoto (Ed.), *The Handbook of Culture & Psychology*, NY: Oxford University Press Inc., pp. 411-445.

Ward, S. (1974), "Consumer Socialisation", *Journal of Consumer Research*, September, Vol. 1, pp. 1-14.

Yinger, J. M. (1986), "Intersecting Strands in the Theorisation of Race and Ethnic relations", in John Rex and David Mason (Eds), *Theories of Race and Ethnic Relations*, NY: Cambridge University Press, pp. 20-41.

Zinkham, G. M. and Hong, J. W. (1991), "Self concept and advertising effectiveness: a conceptual model of congruency, conspicuousness, and response mode", in Holman, R. H. and Solomon, M. R. (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 18, Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 348-354.

Zmud, J. and Arce, C. (1992), "The Ethnicity and Consumption Relationship", in J. Sherry and B. Sternthal (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 19, Provo: Association for Consumer Research, pp. 443-449.

3rd party copyright material excluded from digitised thesis.

Please refer to the original text to see this material.